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ABSTRACT

This journal issue discusses the relevancy of K-12 social studies education and examines its future. The first of 12 articles examines several views of values education and presents a rationale for using values as a focus for studying alternative futures. The second article discusses objections raised to teaching about work in social studies and shows how some educators in Illinois attempted to answer these objections. In the third article the author discusses the question, Will the social studies become the survival studies? The implications of this question for the secondary social studies teacher are examined. Problems associated with gaining public support for social studies education are presented in the fourth article. The fifth article describes ways to change the social studies curricula. Other topics discussed include social studies education in Illinois, teaching historical methods, using a credit card system in the classroom, philatelic education, career education, and using case studies to teach decision making and values. (Author/RM)

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Edited by
Robert L. Dunlap

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Introduction

This years **Councilor**'s theme is "Social Studies Education, Into the Second Two Hundred Years." In a cynical mood one evening, I contemplated adding, "Will it Survive?" In reflecting upon this thought, maybe the mood was more realistic than cynical, for at the moment all is not well with the social studies. In last year's edition of the **Councilor**, Galin Berrier, questioned what had happened to the "Revolution in the Social Studies," Charley Keller and others had called for in the early 60's. A good question indeed, for the inquiry approach which, I feel, should be a matter of fact in teaching the social studies, is still lacking in the vast majority of K-6 classrooms, and more alarming the junior highs and high schools as well.

Ten years ago, social studies was a required subject for four years in most high schools. Today, this requirement is down to two years and in more and more cases only one year, U. S. History, is required (this is because it is a state requirement). While more electives are being made available to students today, fewer students are electing social studies. In some schools, shifts in requirements and shifts in student course selection has caused social studies teachers to be laid off.

Two years ago, at the NCSS Delegate Assembly, in Chicago discussion on Consumer Education, resulted in the assembly recommending this subject not to be included in the social studies (this was revised in Atlanta last November). I use this example and the declining enrollment of social studies electives to question the relevancy of what we are teaching, or at least what some people perceive to be a lack of relevancy.

Realizing that relevancy or the lack of, could be argued for hours with no conclusions, and maybe should best be discussed accompanied with a liquid libation (you may not do any better in reaching a conclusion, but by that time you won't worry about it as much). Seriously, what is perceived as a lack of relevancy is a problem which must be met head on. We must improve our "selling of the social studies." I'm not suggesting a huckster approach, but I am suggesting that we are in competition for students, we are in a period of declining student enrollments and a tightening of educational spending, and therefore if we are unable to communicate convictions, that is, that the social studies are vital to the future of our nation, then who will?

The picture, however, isn't all bleak. There are outstanding social studies programs in operation. Another bright sign is the revitalization of the Illinois Council of the Social Studies. Membership is up. Local councils, which had become dormant are again meeting actively and new councils are being formed, I mention this, because members are important in getting our message out to the public. If you don't agree look at what special education and bilingual education have gained recently. Hopefully, we can continue

this trend and make some gains for making social studies education a curriculum priority.

Along this line we must look closely at our own programs and see what they are doing for kids. Are we as we claim, really preparing kids to live lives as responsible citizens? Hopefully, the answer in most cases is a loud "yes". This year's **Councilor**, will I hope, assist in this assessment. The important thing is to not stop with reflection, but to act. If social studies is to keep moving, positive action is needed. Support and be active in your local, state, and national professional organizations. The social studies should become a vital part of gifted, Title I and Title IV programs. Values, career and consumer education must come to be recognized as integral parts of the social studies, not just to protect jobs, but because students need skills in these areas to cope with an ever changing world and the responsibilities of being an adult. The social studies are probably the most critical part of the curriculum, if presented properly, in preparing students for adulthood. We can no longer afford the luxury of allowing the social studies curriculum to be misrepresented. We must, if we are to survive as a discipline see to it that people equate the social studies with the relevancy of providing students with the background and skills to successfully cope with adulthood.

RLD

EXAMINING ALTERNATIVE FUTURES:

An Exercise in Values Inquiry

Robert J. Snavely

> Every citizen, sooner or later, either has to undertake his own exploration of value or utilize the findings of others who have undertaken it. — Harry S. Broudy

This article will examine several views of values education followed by a rationale for using values as a foci for studying alternative futures. The discussion of preferred futures presents a unique opportunity for integrating the analysis of factual and valuative claims.

Several Notions of Values Education

The history of values instruction reveals a prescriptive stance toward values. The McGuffy readers were noted for their moralistic maxims. Citizenship training during the forties and fifties emphasized the inculcation of democratic ideals and anti-communist training. The rational examination of values which support conflicting views became more prevalent as social studies education moved in the direction of reflective thinking and inquiry[1], including the examination of "closed-areas"[2] and pressing social problems.[3]

Educators commonly employ one or more of the following strategies when dealing with values in the classroom:

a. discontinuing the schools' responsibility or right to teach and examine values;
b. indoctrination of "core values";
c. helping students become aware of their values and clarifying the meaning of personal values;[4]
d. discussions of moral dilemmas designed to expose the student to moral reasoning one or more stages above his present level of moral development, thereby stimulating movement to a higher level of moral reasoning.[5]

The first strategy, placing values beyond the legitimate realm of schooling, is supported by moral relativism and freedom of choice Moral relativism, as seen by those who feel values education should not be a part of the public school curriculum, places all values on an equal footing; i.e., one person's moral beliefs are as good as another's. Since one cannot prove one value superior to another, it is strictly a matter of preference; i.e., valuing parallels choosing your favorite flavor at an ice cream parlor.

If all values are equal and we have a commitment to individual freedom, then the schools leave themselves open for criticism when they teach specific values. Thus, those who see values education as instruction in a specific set of values see it as an infringement on

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the parents' right to select the values their children should embrace. Since most parents cannot select the school or the teacher for their child, and since schooling is required by law, the school should honor the parents' right of free choice and leave value training to the home and church.

A major criticism of the strategy of avoidance is that it severely limits student inquiry. If developing competent decision-making skills is a goal of education and if, as Coombs and others have pointed out, values play a significant role in normative decision making,[6] some form of value education seems in order. Students should not be asked to limit their inquiries to the empirical, factual dimensions of rational decision making. The values used to assign personal meaning to empirical data should also be examined.

The second strategy, indoctrination of "core values," seems to have special appeal during periods of rapid change and social unrest. The uncertainty of the moment is blamed on a retreat from basic values, rather than on a change in the social environment which developed and supported those once-stable values. While justice and equality are still components of the American creed, legislation, court decisions and changing life styles have produced a variety of definitions for this creed. Thus, the plea for a return to the core values of the past may mean a return to an outmoded moral code.

Closely akin to the indoctrination scheme for values instruction is a faith in "modeling" as a technique for stimulating moral development. "Morals are caught, not taught," is the motto of this group. Teachers are to exhibit the epitome of moral action, thus giving their students a proper model to emulate.

The modeling notion of values education meets with a number of obstacles in a pluralistic society, especially a society with an instantaneous communications network. This society provides all its members, including school children, with a plethora of contradictory behavior models and moral codes. This social diversity presents an untenable atmosphere for a teacher interested in providing a proper model. Value modeling is the domain of all who act. Unless individuals develop criteria for evaluating the morass of models available, there can be no rational choices among competing value models.

There is yet another problem with using prescriptive concepts of values education as a means of forming behavior; it doesn't work. The Hartshorne and May studies of the late twenties, Brogden's study of sixth grade boys, the work of Havinghurst and Taba, and more recently, Byron and Walbek's research concerning views of charity and charitable behavior among children, all have failed to show that knowledge of moral rules or being able to explain what one ought to do has a significant correlation to moral behavior.[7]

Piaget's research indicates a rationale for providing students with opportunities to examine social interactions and relations as mechanisms for developing rules of mutual agreement and the understandings which lead to these rules.

> It is absurb and even immoral to wish to impose upon a child a fully worked-out system of discipline when the social life of children amongst themselves is sufficiently developed to give rise to a discipline infinitely nearer to that inner submission which is the mark of adult morality.[8]

According to Piaget, it is counterproductive to give young people a digested moral code. It is better to let them work it out for themselves, with proper guidance as dictated by the child's development, if our goal includes having the child internalize any moral code.

The proponents of value clarification escape charges of indoctrination and proselytism by stressing a methodology which encourages students to freely choose and act on personal values in light of the consequences of these choices. Raths includes the following components in his "process of valuing."[9]

Choosing: (1) freely
(2) from alternatives
(3) after thoughtful consideration of the consequences of each alternative

Prizing: (4) cherishing, being happy with the choice
(5) willing to affirm the choice publicly

Acting: (6) doing something with the choice
(7) repeatedly, in some pattern of life.

These seven aspects of the valuing process are designed to guide the student through his search for values, as he attempts to select a cadre of values capable of directing his normative decisions.

Values clarification has been attacked for its relativistic or neutral stance with regard to specific value choices.[10] In this method the primary considerations for evaluating a student's values are:

1) Were the values chosen freely with a conscious view of the consequences?
2) Does the student consistently act in accordance with his stated values;

The Raths' process does not emphasize the need to develop value principles which could be used to justify the comparative worth of one value over another. In the values model developed by Coombs and Meux, value principles are one of the end products when significant value objects are examined.[11]

The elaborate strategies developed by Coombs and Meux can assist students in moving from primitive value investigations to a more encompassing, rational process of normative inquiry. Their process includes collecting relevant data, rating the data on the basis of value criteria, testing possible choices, and developing value principles.[12] A unique feature of this model is the link between facts and values which occurs during the rating procedure. Also, the four tests of a value judgment (new cases, subsumption, role

exchange, and universal consequences)[13] force the student to rigorously evaluate the consequences of his judgment. An example of the application of this model to futuristic studies will be presented later in the paper.

Kohlberg's work, growing out of his study of Piaget's efforts, has had a tremendous effect on the values education movement. Kohlberg believes that moral development occurs in a fixed sequence of stages, paralleling the cognitive developmental stages described by Piaget, and these stages have a consistent sequence across cultures.[14]

> According to Kohlberg, the aim of moral education is . . . the stepwise stimulation of development toward more mature moral judgement and reasoning, to culminate in a clear understanding of the universal principles of justice.[15]

He defines moral principles as:

> . . . universal modes of choosing which we wish all men to apply to all situations and which represent morally self-justifying reasons for action. . . . Moral principles are not specific rules for guiding action, but are modes of making judgements and decisions.[16]

Movement toward higher stages is desirable because each new stage encompasses a stance which expands the application of justice. Higher order moral reasoning allows one to reflectively process more dilemma and arrive at a decision which provides justice for a broader spectrum of those affected by the decision.

The stimulation of moral growth occurs through the discussion of genuine moral conflicts in a milieu which displays moral reasoning one stage above the child's current level of moral reasoning.[17] The teacher's task is to help the child:

1) focus on genuine moral conflicts
2) think about the reasoning he uses in solving moral conflicts
3) see inconsistencies in his way of thinking
4) find means of resolving such inconsistencies and inadequacies . . . if the child is challenged so as to perceive the contradictions in his own thinking, he will try to generate new and better solutions to moral problems. Thus, teacher's discussions must be provocative and must deal with important issues in order to facilitate the child's experience of genuine conflict . . . . The teacher must focus on the reasoning used in the children's moral judgements rather than on the content of their moral choice . . . it is necessary to introduce a sense of contradiction and discrepancy by discussing the reasoning itself.[18]

It is the moral reasoning which supports a value judgment, not the judgment itself, which is the substance of Kohlberg's methodology.

The valuing process described by Raths and the strategies developed by Coombs and Meux could prove useful in challenging

students' existing moral reasoning and the formation of a subsequent synthesis from alternative modes. The examination of freely chosen alternatives, assessing factual data, and the process of evaluating possible conclusions through role exchange or the test of universal consequences, could prove to be valuable tools in dealing with the inadequacies and inconsistencies of one's moral reasoning.

Social Studies Education and the Future

Contemporary education has been compared to a car traveling at high speed, out of control, headed headlong into the future, while the driver's eyes are riveted to the rear-view mirror. The substance of most social studies curricula reflects this rear-view mirror orientation. The majority of our efforts are devoted to helping students understand historical events, past cultures and social movements, and the important contributions of our distinguished forefathers. This pattern of social studies education may not be sufficient to prepare students to live in an environment characterized by revolutionary change.

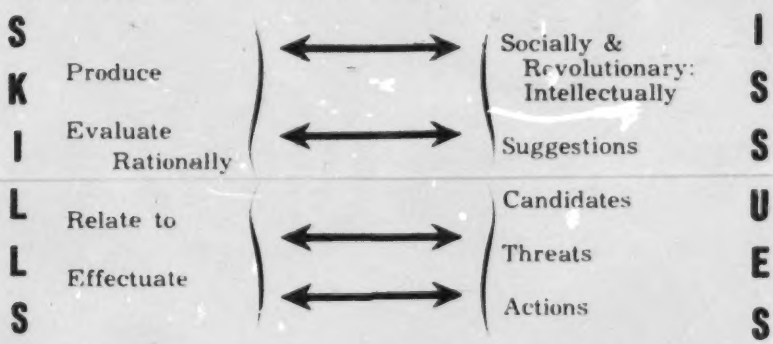
The Need for Futuristic Studies

> Scriven states the case for studying the future quite forcefully. Education has been largely committed to teaching the child what he needs for survival in this society if it remains stable . . . What have we done to educate our citizenry for instability, for revolution, for radical intranational and international transfers of effective power, and in particular, for **being on the short end of such changes,** for unemployment, poverty, retirement, military defeat? Virtually nothing![19]

He goes on to propose that educators focus on the following goals for a future-oriented educational program

> The goals of 'education for survival' are the capacities to **produce,** to **evaluate rationally,** to **relate to,** and to **effectuate:** socially and intellectually revolutionary **suggestions, candidates, threats,** and **actions.**[20]

Figure 1. Goals of Futuristicly Oriented Education



As indicated by Figure 1, Scriven feels that students must acquire the following abilities: 1) production; 2) evaluation; 3) personal acceptance; and 4) implementation. These abilities are to be applied to; intellectually and socially revolutionary suggestions for change, candidates for political office, threats against personal and social well-being, and proposed actions for dealing with revolutionary concerns. These objectives clearly fall within the legitimate realm of most social studies curricula, if teachers choose to concentrate their efforts in this direction.

School is one of the few settings where the development of grounded belief can be guided and demanded. Failure to stimulate the assessment of alternative futures in a reflective manner leaves students with no rational way of evaluating the doomsday criers or the blind optimists.

Futuristic Studies: A Means of Linking Factual Inquiry and Values Analysis

The examination of futuristic topics may be handled best within the context of existing curricular concepts and themes. The task is to have students apply concepts and principles developed through the examination of historical data and the study of cultures and institutions to relevant questions about the future of institutions, mores, or views of man.

Career education, the study of man and his work, is currently a topic of high interest. One way of giving a futuristic focus to this area would be to examine "man's reaction to technological development." What were the effects of, and how did people react to:

a) the development of tools?
b) the development of agriculture?
c) the scientific revolution?
d) the industrial revolution?
e) mechanization of the mundane?

The last two questions are usually covered as part of world history and American history courses. The industrial revolution was seen as the beginning of the end for the working class. Machines designed to reduce the need for manpower were destroyed by laborers. The works of Marx and Engels are, in part, a reaction to the social consequences of technological change. Many current union practices are directed at minimizing the negative consequences of mechanization and computerization for their members.

Students might examine the social effects of technological change through the study of the following questions

1) What was the effect of mechanization on agrarian economies and cultures? How are the effects manifested in today's culture?
2) While mechanization may have the immediate effect of temporarily displacing some workers, in the long-run mechanization produces more jobs. True or false?

3) Has technology freed man from many of the back-breaking and mundane tasks, thus enabling him to engage in more "humane" tasks? Who is most likely to be affected, for better or worse, by such mechanization?

4) Heilbroner indicates that a combination of forces, increased technological development in production areas, increased population, decreasing natural resources, the increase of totalitarian political structures, all will result in a decline in the economic growth rate leading toward a stable or maintenance economy.[21] Such an economy would be able to function with a much smaller work force than our current economy. This may force us to reassess our current tendency to measure an individual's worth on the basis of the kind of work he does. What happens to "unneeded" people?

The last question poses some interesting possibilities for social inquiry. One can examine the link between social status, job, and income. What happens to an individual's self-concept when he is unable to find a job? When his company no longer needs him because of mechanization? Because of general economic declines? How do people maintain their self-worth when faced with retirement?

This activity might help focus students' attention on the link between work and worth in our society. Ask students to rank the following "professions" on the basis of who they respect, most to least.

a) college student
b) hockey superstar
c) Supreme Court Judge
d) drug pusher
e) car wash attendant
f) garbage man
g) retired miner
h) black, female, unmarried, mother of seven, welfare recipient
i) veterinarian
j) high school dropout, son of a wealthy businessman who has spent the last three years traveling about the world on his father's American Express card
k) checker at a grocery store
l) housewife
m) an unemployed, disabled, Viet Nam veteran, receiving a government pension of $387 per month.

On what basis did the students rank the various "professions"? What criteria effected their rankings? Students might also be asked to select three categories they could accept for themselves and three which they would find unacceptable as their "station" in life. What values are reflected in these choices?

How would your students react if they were told that ten percent of them could not be used in the existing job pool? Furthermore, indications are that the job market prospects are likely to continue to decline. Vonnegut's **Player Piano** and Levin's **This Perfect Day** present interesting accounts of societies containing a few real jobs and the struggles of individuals as they attempt to cope with the lack of purpose in their lives.

The assessment of conditions which support individual esteem gives one ample opportunity to examine individual criteria for valuing persons. Are we consistent in our choices and in our application of criteria? Are the consequences of our choices in accordance with the values we wish to support?

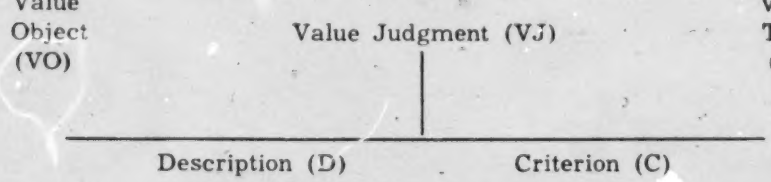
The concept "system" could also be examined in light of its implications in planning for the future. There are those who view the earth as a closed system, Buckminster Fuller's notion of "space ship earth." This conception dictates that when we tamper with one part of the system we should expect an effect elsewhere in that system. An aquarium, mobile, or the simulation starpower, can be used to illustrate this concept.

Another means of depicting the system concept involves group problem-solving. After splitting the class into groups of three, ask them to individually propose "solutions" for a known problem. As each group member presents a "solution," the task of his partners is to point out new problems created by his solution. This activity tends to make students aware of the inter-connectedness of the problems we face.

A final example of dealing with future-oriented topics will more directly demonstrate a means for using values to rate facts. The value model, which is briefly described here, is taken from the NCSS Yearbook, **Values Education**, edited by Metcalf.[22]

Figure 2 illustrates the components of the Coombs/Meux value model and their relationships.

Figure 2. The Simple Value Model[23]



The VO is the issue, decision, action, etc., being evaluated; in Figure 3 the VO is "US involvement in a world food bank." The value judgment (VJ) is the individual's assessment of the VO; in Figure 3 both desirable and undesirable judgments are presented, since this is a composite model. The value term (VT) is any judgmental term used in the VJ; the terms used in Figure 3 are "undesirable" and "desirable." The description and criteria elements of the model distinctly require the judger to give a rating to his relevant facts.

based on a specific personal value. It is at this juncture that facts and values are brought together. The description portion of the model asks the student to present a factual statement relevant to the value object: "In the 1970s the world will undergo famines, hundreds of millions of people are going to starve to death despite any crash programs embarked on now," is a description (D) in Figure 3. The criterion (C) presented for this (D) is "any program which has a low chance of success is a waste of money; wasting resources is undesirable." Other students might place this description on the positive side of Figure 3, using the criteria, "We should do all that we can to alleviate potential suffering." It is the criteria which gives valence to the factual claim (D); i.e., we give meaning to facts based on our values.

After individual students have collected and rated factual data, class discussions designed to share individual findings are undertaken. These discussions may be supplemented with small group sessions or teacher/student interviews.

The goal of this inquiry process is a policy decision by the student relevant to the value object in question. The student is expected to justify his choice through the use of some value principle. Frequently these value principles will be the result of using this model. The student's value decision should be a means of implementing or supporting his expressed value principle.

The Coombs and Meux model can be used to assist students in the careful examination of any value object. Attentive use of the model will enable students to:

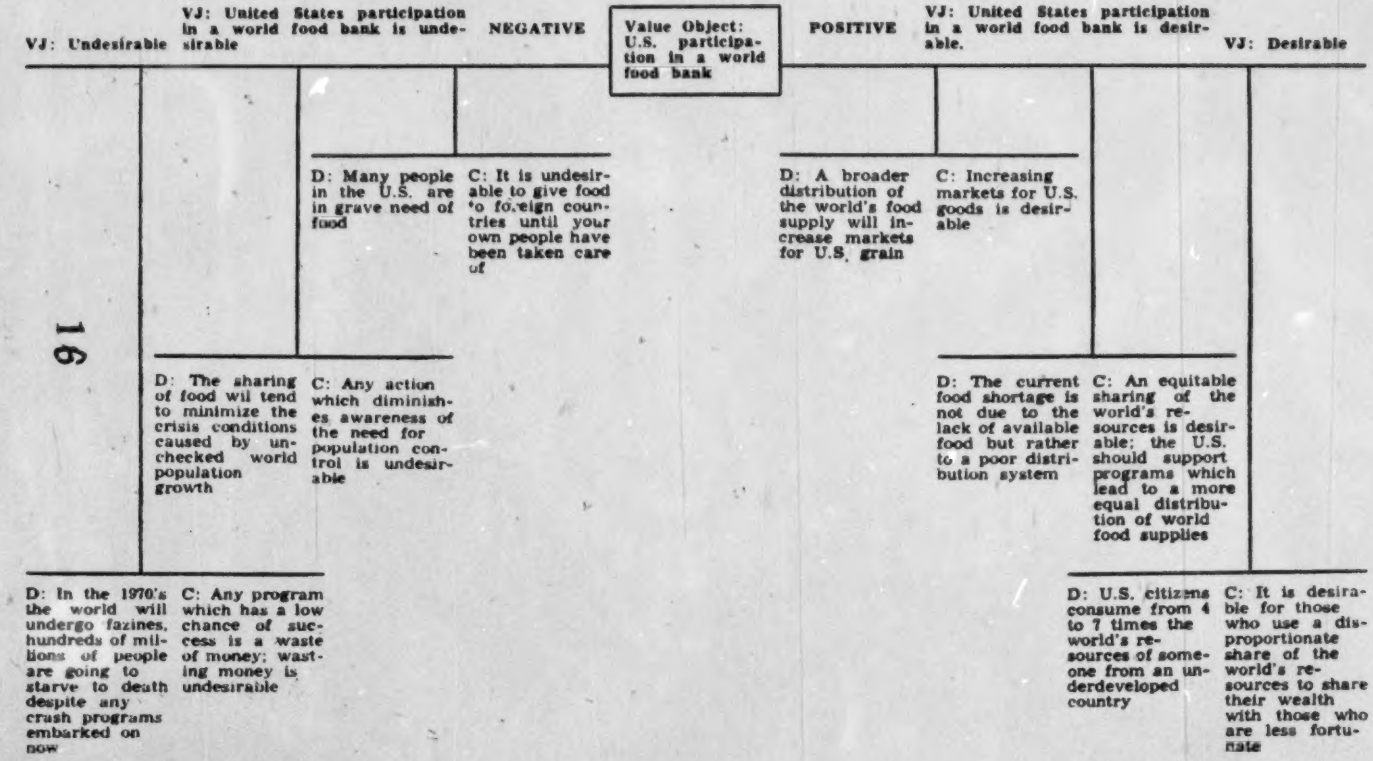
1) challenge and verify factual claims;
2) make distinctions between relevant and irrelevant data;
3) precisely state value criteria used in rating data;
4) examine the consequences of value choices;
5) test their consistency in applying valuative criteria.

Thus, use of this model for examining value issues requires students to apply many of the logical and thinking skills which are regularly touted as goals for social studies education.

Summary

Several notions of values education have been reviewed: avoidance, indoctrination, modeling, values clarification, and the Coombs/Meux model linking facts and values. It is this author's view that the first three conceptions of values education are inconsistent with the basic tenets of social studies education; i.e., the development of grounded belief. While the procedures of values clarification provide ample opportunity for helping one become aware of his values, this methodology gives limited guidance in evaluating the quality of individual value choices. Kohlberg's moral stages describe a progression of moral development based on the universal moral principal of justice. The Coombs/Meux model requires students to examine value questions through the collection of relevant factual data, plus a valuative rating of that data. Student

Figure 3. Application of the Coombs/Meux Value Model to a Specific Value Object: U.S. Participation in a World Food Bank


VJ: Undesirable
VJ: United States participation in a world food bank is undesirable
NEGATIVE
Value Object: U.S. participation in a world food bank
POSITIVE
VJ: United States participation in a world food bank is desirable.
VJ: Desirable
D: Many people in the U.S. are in grave need of food
C: It is undesirable to give food to foreign countries until your own people have been taken care of
D: A broader distribution of the world's food supply will increase markets for U.S. grain
C: Increasing markets for U.S. goods is desirable
D: The sharing of food wil tend to minimize the crisis conditions caused by unchecked world population growth
C: Any action which diminishes awareness of the need for population control is undesirable
D: The current food shortage is not due to the lack of available food but rather to a poor distribution system
C: An equitable sharing of the world's resources is desirable; the U.S. should support programs which lead to a more equal distribution of world food supplies
D: In the 1970's the world will undergo fazines, hundreds of millions of people are going to starve to death despite any crash programs embarked on now
C: Any program which has a low chance of success is a waste of money; wasting money is undesirable
D: U.S. citizens consume from 4 to 7 times the world's resources of someone from an underdeveloped country
C: It is desirable for those who use a disproportionate share of the world's resources to share their wealth with those who are less fortunate

recommendations are then tested, through questions dealing with role exchange and universal consequences, to assess the recommendation's soundness in light of general moral principles.

A case has been made for using the future as a vehicle for practicing normative decision making. Proposed futures are rife with moral dilemmas. Preferred worlds are designed to maximize some values while minimizing the negative consequences of less desired alternatives. Students need to understand the empirical consequences and implied values of the alternatives before them.

Several examples of futuristic inquiry were presented. Career education offers an abundance of topics which could be studied. The idea of the earth as a closed system dictates difficult choices. Finally, the world food crisis was used to briefly illustrate how the Coombs/Meux model could be applied to the study of a particular social issue.

Values education is a popular topic among educators. Unfortunately, some have chosen to segregate value inquiry from their teaching of "real" content. This could produce a "value's day syndrome"; content is taught Monday through Wednesday, values on Thursday, with current events on Friday. This writer feels that in order for value inquiry to be effective, the valuative components of issues must be considered as they occur. And they do arise regularly; e.g., treatment of Tories during the American Revolution, the study of social stratification, nationalism and imperialism, the rights and needs of third and fourth world countries. Values are an integral part of decision making and must be so treated in the course of social studies education.

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13. **Ibid.**, pp. 54-61.
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18. **Ibid.**, pp. 454, 455.
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SOCIAL STUDIES: THE WORLD OF WORK AND ECONOMIC EDUCATION*

By

Michael A. MacDowell, Peter R. Senn, and John C. Soper

At a recent conference supported by the National Science Foundation, a professor of social studies said, "Many educators have reservations about teaching work oriented materials in the social studies." Subsequent discussion and examination of the literature on the subject revealed several objections that thoughtful social studies teachers have about using work-related materials.

Now, however, social studies educators face a number of circumstances which suggest a re-examination of concerns. Among these are competition for students from other fields of study, the call for accountability, charges of social studies irrelevance, and the undoubted fact that in many places social studies is becoming less popular with students. Perhaps it is therefore appropriate for social studies educators to take a new look at the whole question. Assisted by grants from the National Science Foundation and others, educators in Illinois have done this. What follows is an account of the objections raised to teaching about work in the social studies and how some of us in Illinois attempted to answer these objections.

Objections to teaching about work in the field of social studies appear to fall into six main groups. It is alleged that:

1. Teaching about work is not related to the field of social studies.
2. Educators, curriculum developers, and textbook writers lack a theory of how children develop their concepts about work.
3. Teaching about work is faddish, becoming popular only because funds have recently been available for this kind of education.[1] Related to this is the fact that there are not enough interesting, academically sound and well-tested materials available.
4. Teachers in social studies do not have enough time now for what they want to do and they do not want to add a new course, or much new material.

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1 See W. N. Grubb and M. Lazerson, "'Rally 'Round the Workplace': Continuities and Fallacies in Career Education," **Harvard Educational Review**, 45 (November 1975), 451-474.

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5. C her things are more important to teach students about than work.

6. This is another curriculum imposed from the top with little teacher input or regard for the student, and like many other social studies curriculum materials won't work well in the classroom.

Leading economic educators, working with the Illinois Council on Economic Education based at Northern Illinois University, explored each of these objections. You will be able to judge for yourself how successfully they were able to respond to them by what follows.

The Relationship Between Work And The Social Studies

For a number of years specific areas of the social studies have explored and taught about work. For instance, anthropologists regard work as so important that hardly an ethnographic study is made without paying significant attention to the work in that civilization. Likewise sociologists spend large portions of time exploring the relationship between society and the work accomplished by that society. Work also has a history and, of course, economics is primarily dedicated to the productive (working) process.

Most social scientists seem to agree the concept of work is an important component of the subject matter of the various disciplines; but, problems have developed in regard to the applied relationship between work and social studies. This problem seems most acute in our schools where teaching about work and teaching about social studies have been sharply separated. An example of this division is the differentiation between vocational training or career courses and the social studies especially when the vocatonal training simply emphasizes skills such as those of an auto mechanic or typist.

This understandable division seems to disregard the fact that work will occupy a major portion of an individual's life. If people are happy in their work roles they will probably function better in various other social roles as citizens, family members, consumers, etc.[2] In an attempt to meet this issue, an Illinois group of college and school level educators is working on the development of an appropriate pedagogical method and accompanying materials to teach about the importance of work. These materials use the existing social studies curriculum as their base.

2. Recently, some new ideas have surfaced, which, if true, woud tend to explain the disaffection from work of many ghetto young men. These ideas follow from the notions of black culture, or as an alternative explanation, the culture of poverty. Here, the view is that the ghetto man has developed a life-style revolving around norms of autonomy and expressiveness which make repugnant the world of work as it now is. This work is considered 'white, repressive, and stifling' in regard to a style of speech, dress, and language. (Geoffrey H. Moore, **Work Attitudes of Disadvantaged Blackmen: A Methodological Inquiry** (Washington: Bureau of Labor Statistics/1972/), p. 2.)

The project staff was well aware of views such as those expressed above. The materials developed and used by the project generally reflected the dominant viewpoint in the society — that the individual, through education, would come to understand the meanings of work in a sense constructive for himself and the society.

The World of Work Economic Education Program: Teaching About Work in The Social Studies

This project began more than a decade ago in May of 1964 when, as a result of pressures and interest from the U. S. Department of Labor and the Joint Council on Economic Education, an economic education institute focusing on work was held in Athens, Ohio. Requests from classroom teachers, school superintendents, and leaders from the business, labor, and farm communities, made it apparent that there was need for someone to develop curriculum materials which might help students understand the dramatic changes taking place in the world of work. The United States Office of Education under the Vocational Education Act of 1963 gave a grant to Ohio University's Center for Economic Education for the creation of the curriculum, **Manpower Development: Opportunities In American Economic Life** (to later be titled **Manpower Economic Education)** between 1966 and 1968. The curriculum was designed to bridge the gap between education and work by helping students understand such themes as the structure of the United States economy, changes brought about by technology, the changing role of work, and how market processes, occupational opportunities, and decision-making skills were related.

By the spring of 1974, pressures from teachers and educators led the Illinois Council on Economic Education to sponsor an in-service World of Work Economic Education Workshop. The social studies teachers at that workshop, even the ones who had previously thought teaching about work in the social studies was faddish and that there wasn't enough material, were surprised by the amount and quality of what was available for the classroom. They asked the Illinois Council to request funds from the National Science Foundation so that a full scale implementation and dissemination program could be developed.

When this support became available, the Illinois Model was developed. The Model was designed to be widely applicable and because it differs in several significant respects from those used for implementation and dissemination elsewhere, it is worth describing here.

Over one-hundred teachers from twenty-one school districts joined the program. They came from all over the State of Illinois and worked through the Centers for Economic Education at Bradley, DePaul, Northern Illinois, and Western Illinois Universities. The directors of these university centers were the backbone of the project staff.

The teachers were divided into two groups; the first, composed of master teachers (called "key disseminators"), developed the materials and supervised the work of the second group of teachers (called "implementers"). Very early in the project, the teachers decided that, rather than adding new courses, they preferred to improve the quality of their existing offerings. This approach avoided the objection that teaching other things was more important. It

also got around the objection of not having enough time to do what needs to be done.

In a related matter, the teachers also decided to integrate specific work concepts into existing curricula. In other words, the courses the teachers were presently teaching would be the horses that the work concepts would ride. Most of the social studies teachers in the program taught a U.S. History course. They decided to build their classroom materials around a list of economic concepts that would allow them to teach the present materials, but with a new and stronger emphasis on fundamental economic concepts related to specific events, topics, or decisions in United States history. The fundamental concept that linked teaching about work to U. S. History was that rational decisions about work must be based on knowledge of the American economic system. Accepting this idea meant teaching the present materials with more basic economic principles applied to each historic event or period.

Another key feature of the Illinois Model was the close relationship between the teachers and Illinois universities. The key disseminators from all over the state met at the DeKalb campus of Northern Illinois University to become acquainted with the World of Work Economic Education (WOWEE) materials and the program. After meeting at the beginning of the summer of 1974, the master teachers took home with them the WOWEE materials in order to prepare classroom ready programs based on their own needs. They returned later in the summer of 1974 with the implementers, that is to say, the teachers with whom they would be working. At that session the materials they developed were evaluated by the staff and modified where necessary.

All of the teachers were then enrolled in another graduate course giving three credit hours, but lasting from August 1974 through June 1975. Among the requirements for this course were the willingness to teach the materials and revise them according to classroom findings.

Did The Program Work?

The ongoing WOWEE program gave the teachers and project directors a unique opportunity to test the effectiveness of the curriculum and the Model. Each participating teacher, both key disseminators and implementers, pre-and post-tested their students using the nationally normed test, "The Junior High School Test of Economics" (JHSTE). Each teacher also pre-and posttested a control group which was not taught any economics material. Despite the wide variety of teachers, students, and materials taught, it was assumed that the students would improve their economic understanding as measured by this cognitive test instrument. We were not disappointed. Table 1 compares the national norms for the JHSTE with the present norms of the first block of WOWEE students tested.

TABLE 1: National and WOWEE Pretest Statistics

	National Sample	First WOWEE Block
Mean Score (X)	19.12	19.78
Standard Deviation ( )	6.17	6.04
Sample Size (n)	8,618	900
grades	9	7-9

The distinction between experimental and controll classes on the WOWEE pretest was not statistically significant.

Table 2 displays the posttest results for the WOWEE students, broken down by experimental and control groups.

TABLE 2: WOWEE Group Posttest Statistics

	Experimental	Control
(X)	23.185	21.464
( )	6.95	6.39
(n)	597	303

These results indicate that the experimental students scored an absolute gain (post score - pre score) of 3.554 points, while the control group scored, on average, a 1.388 point gain. The control group "learned" some economics, probably due to maturation and incidental learning, even though they were not (in general) exposed to the WOWEE curriculum. In any event, the control group's "learning" is not statistically significant, although that of the experimental group's is highly significant.

An interesting aspect of this project was its high cost-effectiveness; intensive summer training can be reserved for a cadre of the teacher-instructors who in turn train their peers during less expensive school year workshops, which do not involve much release time. Still another interesting finding was that the control groups, those students who were taught nothing about economics, learned in amounts that were not statistically significant.[3]

No model for curriculum change can work in the long run if it is not flexible enough to allow for coping with problems in specific classrooms, and no quantitative evaluation can determine a program's flexibility or viability. For this reason teachers maintained classroom diaries which reflected the day to day assets and liabili-

3. An affective instrument "Were I A WORKER" was also utilized in an attempt to find out if the students gained measureably in their appreciation of all work. This semantic difference scale exam presented some problems to the teachers as well as the project directors and is not fully analyzed at this time. Preliminary indications are that there was some significant increase in an appreciation of work as demonstrated by the responses of the students. Work on this aspect of the project's evaluation is currently underway.

ties of the program. The following are examples of these diary entries and ways in which the program was amended to react to these particular problems.

Because we were not able to get the posttest results back to the students before the end of the semester, one teacher said, "My only disappointment, so far, is that I have not received the results of either the pre- or posttests. It has been discouraging to both my students and myself." This year, two solutions are given for the problem. If the teacher wants immediate feedback, he/she will be given the key and will grade the test. Arrangements also have been made with the computer center to return the results more rapidly.

Another teacher, writing about the affective part of the evaluation, teaches in a suburb of medium income, but with a good school system. "Took the job choice half of the pretest. Took about 30 minutes. Test seems quite senseless to students and is very poor mechanically." This year the test has been revised to eliminate these objections.

A black teacher in a black high school entered the following notes in her diary. "The students in the experimental program were classified as honors, but I found them in many instances to be educationally very immature and not particularly good readers which made teaching economics to them difficult. Finally, I had to resort to case studies and lots of charts and worksheets."

"I do not think a ten-week mini-program should be launched in the middle of the year. As a teacher I would prefer to know my students better so that I might use materials on their level." Many more activities, materials, and other resources have been added to the hundreds of pages of classroom-ready worksheets, lesson plans, and unit outlines with which each teacher is provided. No book is any longer required, although the teacher can use one if desired.

Many teachers gave their own pre- and posttests in addition to the ones given by all the teachers. Although there was much reluctance about this matter on the part of many teachers, the ones who did so found they knew what their students knew at the beginning of the course and were thus able to teach much more effectively.

Plans For The Future

Encouraged by the preliminary results, the National Science Foundation has made another grant to continue the program. The first year had shown that the Illinois Model really worked. But it also showed the staff where problems remained. One of these problems was the form of the materials that the teachers used. As every working teacher knows, materials developed for one's own class are not necessarily useful on a broader scale. They usually need polishing. With National Science Foundation support and a grant from the McDonald's Corporation, two social studies teachers, Ms. Shirley Mantlo and Ms. Ruth Smith, with the aid of teachers from other parts of the state, were given time to make needed improvements in the materials and to systematize their presentation through

the use of key economic concepts. Though far from perfect and subject to all the liabilities and benefits of teacher-created materials, this "WOWEE Packet" does provide a basic guide, sample lesson plans, and information concerning the "infusing" of WOWEE into the social studies classroom. The packet contains ten basic economic concepts:

1. SCARCITY - the condition that exists with respect to any good or service whenever there is not enough of it for everyone to have all that they want.

2. INDIVIDUAL CHOICE - the necessity of making personal decisions among alternatives.

3. OPPORTUNITY COST - the value placed on whatever must be sacrificed to obtain something else.

4. WORK SATISFACTION - the achievement of personal and social objectives through work.

5. OCCUPATIONAL PROJECTIONS - the investigation of possible careers in the changing world of work by forecasting future manpower needs.

6. JOB DISCRIMINATION - the differentiation in work opportunities because of race, color, creed, national ancestry, sex, age and physical or mental handicap.

7. COLLECTIVE BARGAINING - the process by which employees and employers agree upon the terms and conditions of employment.

8. UNEMPLOYMENT - the condition which exists when potentially productive members of society are not engaged in work.

9. PRODUCTIVITY OF LABOR - the output per worker per unit of time in relation to the input of productive resources.

10. COST - the price of factors of production; supply, demand, and market price.

Perhaps more important than the concepts themselves is the pedagogical information and suggestions contained in the lesson plans and auxiliary material. For instance, there are suggestions for teaching various "consumer" issues within the context of the WOWEE concepts. Career decisions are discussed as the students learn about work satisfaction and occupational projections. Pressing social issues such as job discrimination are studied by means of role playing and simulation.[4]

Wisely, the National Science Foundation included in the grant for the second year a sum for evaluation. The project accumulated a vast mass of data which needs to be analyzed in some detail. In addition, more data is being collected during the second year. We will have the opportunity, therefore, to compare and contrast class-

4. The WOWEE packet is available at cost in its present draft form through the Illinois Council on Economic Education office at Northern Illinois University.

room results over a two-year period. If we are fortunate, the second year will see the resolution of many of the problems which arose in the first year.

One result does stand out, however. The long standing debate about the propriety of teaching about work in the social studies now has a data base larger than ever before. Those who think that work should not be taught about in the social studies curriculum have to answer the logic and data from this project. In the opinion of the authors, the reasonable objections have been answered.

Teachers of social studies who find themselves with problems might consider the benefits that could stem from including some concepts about work in their teaching. It helps to answer needs for accountability because the learning can be demonstrated with nationally normed pre-and posttests. It is relevant and interesting. Students want to learn about jobs and what generates employment and unemployment. In these days of declining social studies enrollments, do we really want others, perhaps less qualified than ourselves, to teach a subject in which social studies has such a rich potential?

WILL THE SOCIAL STUDIES BECOME THE SURVIVAL STUDIES?

By

Duane K. Everhart

As the United States moves into its third century of existence, it is natural and desirable for Social Studies teachers to reflect on our past, but is it not just as important that we also begin to probe more into the future? The human organism is the only living species which can rationally contemplate the future and at no time in the evolution of humanity have conditions for the future seemed quite so ominous.[1] Supposedly the future is something that just does not happen, but it is something that we can and should create and mold to our designs. However, humanity seems poised on the brink of momentous change in the world because problems of great magnitude exist (political cynicism, economic upheaval, rapid depletion of resources, impending ecological disaster, energy crisis) over which we seemingly have lost control. In a very short period of time, mankind may be living in a world that conceivably will be drastically different and which will necessitate many adaptations in our life style if humanity is to survive. This certainly has many implications for the secondary Social Studies teacher, for these are issues he/she must face in the classroom in preparing the student for tomorrow's world.

What can we educators do with these seemingly insurmountable problems? Do we throw up our hands in despair, accept what is seemingly inevitable, and go on teaching Social Studies as we have in the past? Or should we be preparing our students for some of these catastrophic changes that may possibly occur? In this paper the author would like to give his impressions on what secondary Social Studies educators should be concerned with as we move into our third century of history.

What is the current status of the Social Studies? There is an aprocryphal folk expression which states "some things never change." There may be some philosophical truth to this, especially when it is applied to the field of the Social Studies.[2] While those of us in the field like to view the Social Studies profession as being dynamic and meeting the needs of our changing society, there is evidence to suggest that many things tend to remain the same. We teach the same disciplines year after year, decade after decade, stressing what has happened in the past and making very few

1. This statement obviously represents a value judgment; however, the author feels that a certain amount of agreement could be elicited on this statement.

2. The author recognizes that we have had some significant changes in methodology, that teaching materials have been improved and updated, and that there are individuals who have pioneered new courses. Yet change is often times slow in overtaking the Social Studies profession.

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meaningful prognostications as to what will or should happen in the future. Of course, we are faced with that never-ending educational dilemna, the paradox that we are to transmit values from past generations to future generations, which in a sense forces us to be static, while at the same moment we as educators are supposed to lay the groundwork for an improved society in the future, which is asking us to be dynamic and to opt for change. Now, granted, it is important to consider the past and the author does not propose scrapping what is "tried, true and traditional." Yet in the past we could maintain emphasis on the status quo in our Social Studies courses without worrying too much about the future; however, if some of the dominant world trends are disaster-oriented as previously suggested, are we with our current educational emphasis teaching students to exist in an environment that will be radically altered in the very near future? If this supposition is true, then education may be in the need of a drastic overhaul. In order to prepare our students for a different world than the one they are accustomed to, Social Studies educators must be the catalyst for changing attitudes, values, and consumption patterns. Particularly in the Social Studies, educators may have to emphasize simple "survival techniques" rather than the social skills which have occupied our courses of study and lesson plans of the past and that have been fairly adequate up to this time.

In the field of economics, Social Studies instructors are faced with many attitudes that need to be changed if we are to survive. Our consumption patterns seem to be based upon the belief that economic goods are limitless. We have become a "throw-away" culture where practically all consumer goods tend to become disposable.[3] In the classroom we are perhaps unwittingly perpetuating this myth by promoting the view that our capitalistic system must continue expanding to have progress and full employment, and an easy way to do this is through planned obsolescence. Additionally, we have subverted the old cliche that "Necessity is the Mother of Invention;" today we invent something and then through advertising we create a "need" for it. Thus our consumption patterns become even more distorted.[4] Moreover, we see less individualism and more conformity in our purchasing habits, forced upon us through specialization, automation and the ability to produce items in large quantities.[5] Certainly mass production and specialization have improved our life style but somewhere we must draw the line for the disadvantages may outweigh the advantages. Perhaps R. Buckminster Fuller is correct when he states that the way to extinction is through over-specialization - "as you get more and more overspecialized, . . . you outbreed general adaptability."[6]

3. See Victor Papanek, **Design for the Real World**, Bantam Books, New York, 1973, and Charles Beitz and Michael Washburn, **Creating the Future**, Bantam Books, New York, 1974.

4. For sheer idiocy in design, see Papanek, **Design for the Real World**, where the author cites examples of diapers for parakeets and an inflatable "Playgirl," completely life-like in detail. These items are just waiting for the eager consumer to purchase them.

5. The automobile syndrome is very evident in this example. We have the "push" to have a new car every two or three years. This is particularly ironic since there is a possibility that the auto may become the dinosaur of the 21st century.

6. As cited in Papanek, **Design For the Real World**.

The task facing the teacher of economics then is enormous. He must strive to change the attitude that permeates our economic system, namely, that we can continue to consume at our present pace with little or no thought to the future. We must teach our students to be more selective in their purchasing — to avoid the lunacy of some of the products that are in the market place and not to cave in to the conformity forced upon us through the advertising media. The author still feels that the capitalistic system is best but we need to make business and industry more accountable. It seems that private material gain is more important than the public welfare. The individual must regain his rightful place in our economic system by being a wise and judicious consumer, demanding only that which has utilitarian value and which represents quality rather than quantity. If we do not do this, the continual squandering of our already rapidly diminishing resources could have catastrophic results. To change these ideas is a formidable task but one that economic teachers must undertake immediately.

Looking at the fields of psychology and sociology, a corollary to the above arguments regarding our "throw away" culture and conformity may be developed. Possibly one of the results of an atmosphere where we can throw away cars, furniture, clothing, and other physical items is that we can also "throw away" personal relationships. Indicative of this may be the breakdown of the nuclear family, and while we recognize that there are alternatives to this life style, it does manifest a problem. The psychology and sociology teacher must attempt to do something about this, urging their students to make meaningful committments in the areas of human associations and to overcome the attitude that relationships are vacuous as well as disposable.

Moreover, the urge to conform has accelerated at a rapid rate, diminishing the individual and his ability to establish a personal identify. Additionally, as our world becomes more conformist, the individual loses the ability to be creative and to solve problems that confront him.[7] If we do have any dramatic change in our life style in the near future, would the human race be able to adapt and to cope?[8] Again the psychology and sociology teacher must search diligently for ways to have the students regain some of their individuality, their identity, and their ability to solve problems.

The teaching of geography also must undergo change. We must go beyond the traditional approach in teaching students place and cultural geography. Students must be made aware that the continued misuse and pillaging of our environment must cease. With our increasing population, we are stretching resources regarding

7. See Papanek, **Design For the Real World**, pp. 321 and 323. Regarding conformity, the historian, Frederick J. Taggart, has said that "the great advances of mankind have been due, not to the mere aggregation, assemblage or acquisition of disparate ideas, but to the emergence of a certain type of mental activity which is set up by the opposition of different idea systems."

8. If we should revert to a primitive age could the so-called civilized people of the world survive? Perhaps we could profit from the anthropological studies of primitive cultures which manage to survive under harsh environmental conditions rather than viewing them as "backward" and "quaint."

our land areas to the ultimate.[9] We must teach conservation and efficient usage of our land, rather than despoilation and exploitation. Americans have always tended to exploit their physical environment because we had land stretching from coast to coast. But this has long since ceased to exist and we must change the attitude of our students that land and its resources are there simply for exploitative purposes.

What about the problems facing the instructor of government in our high schools today? Surely he/she is faced with monumental pessimism and lack of confidence in the student's attitude toward the institution of government. It is certainly not necessary to catalog the excesses of governmental officials in the last few years to ascertain why the people feel the way they do. But the problem obviously is how does one combat the political cynicism and apathy that grips our nation at the beginning of our bicentennial year? If we are going to keep our government accountable and vibrant, future generations of students must be much more involved in our political processes, and this cannot be done if the political science instructor is content with simply teaching about the structure, levels, and functions of our government. Certainly understanding the framework of government is important, but in the critical times in which we live, students must be cognizant that government is only as good as the officials involved. Therefore, future generations must make an added effort to be involved and it is the task of the government teacher to launch this process in his/her classroom.

In teaching American History to our students we would like to approach the Bicentennial Year with unbridled optimism, emphasizing our glorious past and our great future. While this is certainly possible and desirable, should we not also be enumerating some of the danger signs in America in 1976? The author is reminded of Gibbons' classic work on the collapse of the Roman Empire in which he delineated the causes of its downfall. He lists factors such as the decline of the family, higher and higher taxes, the mad craze for pleasure and sports (particularly the violent type), the building of great armaments to protect the nation when the real danger was the enemy within, and finally the decay of religion. Perhaps it is somewhat elementary to adopt this argument completely as paralleling the current situation in America. But it might be instructive to point out that some of these things that Gibbons has mentioned may have some applicability.[10] Historically, we can still have a great future but we need to make upcoming generations of our students aware that some basic attitudinal changes need to be made if we are to maintain the quality of life to which we are accustomed.

Hopefully, conditions will not become as drastic as implied in

9. Perhaps the pessimistic parson, Thomas Malthus, was right after all. In the eighteenth century, ten million died of hunger; twenty-five million in the nineteenth century; and the possibility of another twenty-five million in the twentieth century. Therefore, population must be restricted for the land simply cannot support a continued increase. See **Chicago Sun-Times**, December 14, 1975.

10. Indeed, with the many problems facing us, there are some authors who see the next historical era as something akin to the Dark Ages. See Bietz and Washburn, **Creating the Future** and Papanek, **Design For the Real World**.

the title of this article so that we have to teach survival techniques.[11] In fact, the author was being somewhat facetious in using the term "survival studies;" however, I do feel that we need to undertake some new directions in the Social Studies in our Bicentennial Year. Social Studies curricula should contain specific courses on "Futuristics." These courses should be concerned with making an in-depth probe into some of the consequences (political, social, economic, ecological) of the future if present trends continue. Students should be challenged to look at the future realistically, to determine what can represent optimum conditions for human society within the limits of our diminishing resources. They must be made aware that there are some danger signs insofar as maintaining the present standard of living in American society. As America enters its third century, Social Studies educators must be willing to challenge the idea which has existed over the last two hundred years that the United States has been and always will be the land of plenty. The future in America has always taken care of itself but we may be reaching a point where this is no longer the case; therefore, Social Studies curricula should have courses which try to rationally look at what needs to be done to insure the future.[12]

Additionally, Social Studies instructors should try to bring the future into sharper focus in the traditional courses. As previously discussed, basic attitudes of students about economics, government, et. al., need to be challenged and changed. Perhaps part of the problem has been that Social Studies teachers have gotten away from teaching attitudes and place too much emphasis on pure subject matter.

While there are certain clouds on our horizon as we celebrate our bicentennial, all is not lost. As Arthur Schlesinger, Jr., points out the centennial year of 1876 was not so hot either.[13] Yet we managed to survive the Grant scandals, a national depression and a host of other problems. The drive to put more emphasis on what needs to be done to insure a prosperous future is one that will not be easy. Individual teachers can start this but the Social Studies profession needs to have some direction from the top. The Illinois Council and National Council for the Social Studies should take active leadership in promoting the type of change advocated by the author. Now is the time for educators to lead and show the way to the future rather than accepting and observing the status quo.

11. The term "survival" is meant to be used generically, concerned with America's ability to adapt to a reduced standard of living if we continue to waste our resources.

12. Bantam Books has a compilation of books dealing with the future. In addition to the works by Papanek and Beitz and Washburn cited earlier, other books in this series include **Teaching Tomorrow Today: A Guide to Futuristics, Utopia or Oblivion, The Closing Circle: Nature, Man and Technology, Consumer Beware,** et. al.

13. **Chicago Sun-Times**, January 4, 1976

A PROSPECTIVE FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES, OR WILL ANYBODY CARE IF JOHNNY CAN'T MAKE DECISIONS?

David G. Armstrong

Why can't Johnny make decisions? As we approach the year 2000, what are the chances that this question will join "Why can't Johnny read?," "Why can't high school graduates write mechanically correct English?," and "Why can't Susie make change?" as foci of debate regarding the outcomes of public education? Prospects for a budding public concern about youngsters' decision-making abilities do not appear bright. This probable lack of sustained public interest in school programs designed to enhance learners' abilities to make grounded decisions augurs ill for social studies education in the waning years of the twentieth century.

Professor Engle of Indiana University has argued eloquently for social benefits to be expected from programs centered around the development of decision-making abilities. While few would wish to contest the assumption that social studies professionals must consider the social impact of decision-making and other outcomes of social studies curricula, attempts to promote enthusiasm among the public for social studies programs because of their alleged social value are likely to fail. Critics may argue with some logic that all curricular areas claim to provide socially useful experiences for learners. Indeed, even some mathematics education programs are prefaced by references to the aim of developing citizenship (here, as elsewhere, undefined). Social studies programs described as promoting social benefits are likely to be dismissed by the knowledgeable public with a yawn, a shrug, and a feeling that the **pro forma** "good intentions" announcement represents but the latest in a series of attempts to draw attention to the [illegible]diously obvious.

If social studies programs cannot be promoted on the basis of alleged social benefits, how can public commitment to the social studies be increased? The response is at once simple and maddeningly complex. First, there is a need to describe elements within social studies programs with precision. Second, and herein lies the greater challenge, these programs need to be described in language that prompts a compelling interest. As a beginning, an inquiry into the characteristics of school programs that do attract high levels of public support and financial resources may prove instructive.

Typically such programs are believed by the public to provide learners with experiences that have functional utility "beyond the school." Further, specific elements of these programs have been described with sufficient precision that a decision regarding a given youngster's mastery or non-mastery of a particular feature of a course can be made with relative ease. These programs permit assessment of youngsters' levels of competence on individual pro-

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gram elements that are taken as indicators of progress toward program goals.

Most present social studies programs do not stand up well with programs in reading and mathematics that have drawn high levels of monetary support either in terms of their perceived value or in terms of program element specificity. Problems relating to relatively low perceptions of value of social studies programs may be unrecognized by social studies educators who have looked only at generally favorable public responses to stated program goals such as the promotion of effective citizenship. This misperception stems from social studies educators' unwarranted assumption that public support for a general statement of intentions can be generalized to a presumption for enthusiastic public support when those intentions are shaped into particulars of an operating social studies curriculum.

Consider, for example, the issue of "decision-making." Decision-making has been identified as the "heart of the social studies" by one leading professional (Engle, 1960), and few social studies educators would deny the importance of this skill as a high priority outcome for social studies programs. For the public at large, there is support for the general aim of improving youngsters' abilities to make grounded judgments. But, less evidence supports the view that this commitment extends to decision-making at the **operational** as opposed to the **hypothetical** level.

Social studies programs that seriously attempt to provide youngsters with the ability to examine issues critically and to make judgments based upon reasoned weighings of evidence carry within them the seeds of disaffection for the world "as it is." Sophisticated decision-making abilities demand confrontation with issues that are profound, real, and most importantly, divisive. They demand a willingness to question assumptions and to probe seriously for loose intellectual mortar supporting the logical bricks of many cherished and widely-held public positions.

With memories of Chicago 1968 and other manifestations of the "events of the 60's" still fresh, many members of the American middle class (still firmly in control of public education in most areas) may be more frightened by than appreciative of social studies programs that actually produce youngsters with the intellectual toughness to ask probing questions. Given the centrality of decision-making to the social studies and the potential for an operational version of that ability to scare off public education's most traditional supporters, social studies education (at least as presently conceptualized) appears poorly positioned to compete for funds against such non-threatening and "useful" programs as those designed to enhance computational and reading skills.

In addition to problems associated with gaining support and new funds on the basis of a widely-perceived utility of social studies programs, social studies educators are faced with formidable internal competition for learners' time within the school day. This

competition comes most obviously from those subject areas in which program elements have long been described with a precision unknown in most social studies curricula. Consequences of this situation have serious implications for social studies professionals in terms of predictable patterns of teacher behavior.

For example, a second grade teacher, because of precise specification of elements in reading and mathematics programs followed in the first grade, has certain expectations regarding learnings in those areas youngsters in his class have acquired (or, more accurately, been exposed to) during their first year in school. Few second grade teachers find themselves able to articulate similar expectations regarding presumed first grade learnings in the social studies. While many first grade social studies programs are organized around the theme of "the neighborhood," only the rare school district provides teachers with a guide that specifies clearly the particular skills and knowledges youngsters may be expected to encounter as a part of this first grade program.

Within the school, social pressure exists for teachers to emphasize most heavily those areas for which they see themselves most likely to be held accountable by other teachers. Since grade level outcomes in the social studies tend to be ill-defined as compared to curricula in such subject areas as reading and mathematics, there is little incentive for most teachers to strive for especial excellence in their social studies teaching. A mediocre job of teaching the first grade social studies program is perceived by the first grade teacher as likely to cause fewer difficulties for (and, hence, fewer complaints from) the second grade teacher than a mediocre job of teaching reading or mathematics.

What are the implications of difficulties facing social studies education? First, social studies professionals increasingly must become sensitized to the political and social realm within which public education operates. It is essential for social studies educators to understand that public acceptance of a vague and undefined program outcome such as "Decision-making" does not translate to automatic support for "decision-making" when the construct is transformed into a precisely-defined operational component of the social studies curriculum. What may appear to the social studies professional as a necessary "survival skill" in a changing world may appear to the public as a threat to social order as they know it. In response to the potential for public misunderstanding of the intentions of social studies programs, it is imperative that great care be exercised in selecting the language used to describe the substance of social studies curricula to the public. Only by painstaking attention to nuances transmitted by descriptions of program intentions can social studies educators build the trust level that is fundamental for broad based public support.

Assuming success in the public relations arena, there remains a battle to be joined in each school. If social studies programs are to compete successfully for teachers' attention, particularly within elementary schools, outcomes of those programs and elements with-

in those programs must be described with a specificity that rivals those in science, reading, and mathematics. This necessity speaks to the need for mammoth curriculum development efforts designed to provide a tight scope and sequence for the entire social studies program.

Resolution of problems facing the social studies will not come painlessly. Inevitably when proposals calling for substantive rather than simply cosmetic changes are put forward, voices will rise in outraged opposition. If the social studies as a distinctive element of the school curriculum is to survive into the next century, social studies educators must be prepared to meet these challenges with vigor. The present low estate of the social studies suggests that professionals who fail to join the battle may stand aside only to preside over the dismantling of social studies education in American schools.

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Engle, Shirley H. "Decision-making: The Heart of Social Studies Instruction." Social Education, 24: 301-304 , November, 1960.

CHANGING THE SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULA: SOME SUGGESTIONS AND AIDS

By

Robert B. Anthony

One of the most important and challenging aspects of social studies education is curricula change — important because it is a major contributor to meeting the educational needs of students; and challenging because of the complex interactions required of staff in order to make decisions or commitments about changing the social studies curricula.

Too often curricula change is seen as involving exclusively the various elements of course content and its implementation: various social science disciplines, evaluating the curriculum, and restructuring the curriculum. Often neglected are individual and departmental pre-existing concerns, such as the quality of departmental dialogue, the extent of sharing ideas and responsibility, interest, and cooperation—preconditions which crucially affect the degree of success of curricula change.

Further, most staff members today want a "piece of the action" since they will be strongly affected by the quality of curricula-change decisions. The days when the chairperson could unilaterally decide important curricula change matters are past. Better decisions may be made if all staff members have the opportunity to provide relevant inputs since the chairperson cannot possibly know about every important matter bearing on curricula change in his or her department.

Thus social studies departments today face the challenge of how to successfully orchestrate at least four major components of curricula change — staff concerns, evaluating the curriculum, course content, and restructuring the curriculum.[1]

Dealing With Staff Concerns

A very useful technique for dealing with staff problems arising from curricula change is a "force-field" analysis. Basically, a force-field analysis (1) identifies positive forces which promote change of the existing equilibrium and identifies negative forces which hinder change toward a more satisfactory norm; (2) evaluates each forces' relative strength or importance; and (3) identifies ways to decrease the negative change forces and increase the positive forces.

The actual procedure of a force-field analysis is simple. Initially brainstorming groups are formed to identify and list positive and negative change forces. Since the purpose of brainstorming is to generate an extensive and varied list by staff participants, no criticism or evaluation of ideas should occur during the brainstorm-

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ing session. And far-out ideas should be encouraged as they may trigger more practical ideas.

Next, since the brainstorming will generate numerous positive and negative change forces, the **relative** strength of the forces need to be ascertained to finally have two manageable lists of forces. This may be done by assigning weights to each force or by the staff determining, say, the three most important or the four most important forces.

Finally, strategies for reducing the negative forces and increasing the positive forces should be identified and discussed.

Another useful technique or device for dealing with overall staff concerns related to curricula change is a Capacity-To-Change Evaluation Form. Curricula change, especially in the social studies, does not and cannot occur in a vacuum. Rather, it is just one important element or variable among many in the educational change process. Therefore if a department attempts to change curricula, but over the years has been unsuccessful in dealing with change in larger departmental and school realms, a strong possibility exists of failure. The department needs, then, a broad capacity to cope with change that will pave the way for successful change in the specific area of curricula.

The following Capacity-To-Change Evaluation Form attempts to measure change capacity in two crucial areas: 1) department climate or atmosphere; and 2) department problem solving.

Many 1's and 2's circled on the form would indicate a low or small capacity for successful change, but many 3's and 4's circled would indicate high or large capacity for successful change.

CAPACITY-TO-CHANGE EVALUATION FORM

Key: 4 = Great Extent 2 = Small Extent
3 = Moderate Extent 1 = Unable to Judge

I. Department Climate or Atmosphere				
1. Teachers believe new approaches and techniques is the "thing to do."	4	3	2	1
2. Department meetings focus on substantive issues.	4	3	2	1
3. Teachers share many classroom ideas.	4	3	2	1
4. Teachers discuss the social studies informally at school.	4	3	2	1
5. Teachers visit each other's classes.	4	3	2	1
6. Students have input on course offerings.	4	3	2	1
II. Department Problem Solving				
1. Decisions are carefully thought-out.	4	3	2	1
2. The department faces, or does not avoid, important issues.	4	3	2	1

3. Department meetings accomplish much.	4	3	2	1
4. All members make important contributions.	4	3	2	1
5. Many possible alternatives are discussed prior to a decision.	4	3	2	1
6. Conflicts are resolved rationally.	4	3	2	1
7. Systematic procedures exist for solving problems.	4	3	2	1

Evaluating the Social Studies Curriculum

A valuable aid that has appeared recently is the Social Studies Curriculum Guidelines, first published in **Social Education,** December, 1971, and now available from the National Council for the Social Studies for $1.50.[2] Not intended to foster uniform or ideal programs, rather the Guidelines represent a broad set of standards or bench marks — both innovative and of proven merit — for social studies programs.

The Guidelines cover nine important areas: student concerns, the real social world, valid knowledge about man and society, objectives, the learning process, teaching, student organization of experience, evaluation, and the place of social studies education in the total school program.

By adding to the Guidelines a three-column Evaluation Checklist consisting of the ratings of "strongly," "moderately," and "hardly at all," it is possible to simultaneously study the Guidelines for new ideas and rate or evaluate the existing program. Or the Evaluation Checklist could be used to determine what ought to be stressed in future social studies curricula.

Another way to use the Guidelines would be to invite students to participate in department meetings where the Guidelines are used to evaluate present and future curricula. Student input would probably generate much interesting and valuable discussion. Or by themselves students could evaluate the program and then report their findings to the staff.

Course Content: Textbooks, Projects, and Materials

The single best source on course content is the **Social Studies Curriculum Materials Data Book** published by the Social Science Education Consortium in Boulder, Colorado.[3] The **Data Book** is the only complete analytical guide to the new social studies curriculum materials developed from the nationally funded projects as well as innovative textbooks, games, and simulations. Analyzed are over 150 curriculum materials, giving detailed information about content, rationale, teaching/learning strategies, evaluative data about classroom use, and cost.

Restructuring the Curriculum

Many social studies educators are calling for less discipline specialization and more interdisciplinary programs. The separate

discipline approach has many weaknesses — the tendency toward the trivialization of knowledge: knowing more and more about less and less; the proliferation of courses causing unwieldly curricula; and lack of insight into how to deal intelligently with the knowledge explosion. Actually, discipline specialization has been so dominant in the social sciences and social studies that it tends to obscure the important fact that everybody experiences social reality as a totality and not as a series of unrelated parts and events; social reality is not experienced and lived segmentally as the scholars study it. That is, we are not first affected by power and then, after an interim, affected by class, followed by the influence of scarce resources and, lastly, culture. Rather, all of these aspects of social reality **simultaneously** impinge upon a person, making each person a nexus of social influences, meanings, and actions.

The advantages of an interdisciplinary approach are many and important: intelligent control can be applied to the proliferation-of-courses problem, savings may be made by finding common materials for different courses and also by integrating the most important knowledge of each separate course ultimately into fewer courses; teacher cooperation and sharing is fostered; increased exposure to new ideas upgrades teacher knowledge; and more flexible teaching-learning environments and arrangements are fostered.[4]

An interesting variation of an interdisciplinary-based social studies curriculum is at the H. W. Schroeder High School in Webster, New York.[5] In the belief that no single approach to social studies instruction is best for all students, Schroeder's Social Studies Department has designed five options or strands within the program: the survey, problem-solving, cross-disciplinary, community service, and independent study strands.

The survey strand is the traditional tenth and eleventh year courses in American and European studies with courses on a quarterly basis. The survey of American life and history begins with United States government and politics and concludes with the United States in world affairs and American culture, especially the arts and the mass media.

In the problem-solving strand students identify and define problems, examine alternative solutions, and arrive at tentative conclusions in such areas as future studies, law and justice, consumer economics,and minority studies.

The cross-disciplinary strand involves double-period scheduling that brings together English and social studies teachers to explore man and society themes.

Realizing that the school cannot always be a substitute for real life experiences, the department designed the Community Service Internship Program. Participating students spend three or four afternoons per week in-service under the direction of a community sponsor and the remaining afternoon sessions in related in-school activities under the social studies staff's direction.

The independent study strand is designed to allow students to pursue topics or questions as deeply or as broadly as their motivation, creativity, and imagination will allow.

FOOTNOTES

1. For more information about curricula change, write Dr. James M. Becker, Social Studies Development Center, Indiana University, 1129 Atwater Avenue, Bloomington, Indiana 47401.
2. National Council for the Social Studies, 1201 Sixteenth St., N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036.
3. Social Science Consortium, 855 Broadway, Boulder, Colorado 80302.
4. For further explanation of the interdisciplinary approach, see my article, "Rationale for an Interdisciplinary Approach in the Social Studies," in The Social Studies, April, 1974, pp. 150-151.
5. For more information write Charles Kochheiser, Social Studies Department Chairman, H. W. Schroeder High School, Webster, New York 14580.

SOCIAL STUDIES IN ILLINOIS

Ann M. Pictor

An analysis of the social studies curricula of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries would reveal a heavy emphasis on ancient and medieval history, the history of Western Europe, and the historic development of the United States. There was also emphasis given to oriental geography, particularly in a historical connection.

In 1916, the social studies curriculum was established by the Committee on Social Studies of the National Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education. This committee, an affiliate of the National Education Association, officially adapted the term social studies from the prevailing curricula defining it as relating to the traditional academic concerns, life processes, and needs of students. The predominant theme of social studies was the development of good citizenship.[1] This committee established the following general social studies curriculum.

Grade 7: European History (one semester geography optional)

Grade 8: One semester American history, one semester civics

Grade 9: One year civics, or civics and economic history

Grade 10: European history

Grade 11: American history; and/or European history

Grade 12: Problems of Democracy, one or two semesters[2]

In Illinois, the first law requiring instruction in the History of the United States was enacted in 1909. A law relating to patriotism and principles of representative government was added in 1921. Since that time these laws have been amended and new laws have been added, but the original intent has remained the same. Students must have instruction in U. S. History, the National and State Constitutions, principles of American Democracy, and the flag code. As of June 26, 1967, the teaching of history must include a study of the role and contributions of American Negroes and other ethnic groups in the history of this country and State. This legislation forms the basis for social studies instruction in the State of Illinois today.

In order to delve into the historical aspects of the social studies instruction, sections are presented on definitions, philosophies, curriculum projects, and legislation pertaining to socal studies.

1. Massialas, Byron G. and Cox, C. Benjamin, Inquiry in Social Studies McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, New York, 1966, pp. 27-38.
2. Massialas, Inquiry in Social Studies, p. 28.

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Social Studies Defined

The social studies deal with human relations; with man and his ideas, ideals, heritage, culture, skills, ambitions; attainments; behavior limitations, and frustrations. According to the National Council for the Social Studies, the social studies are concerned with human relationships. Their content is derived principally from the scholarly disciplines of economics, geography, history, political science, and sociology, and include elements from other social sciences, among them anthropology, archaeology, and social psychology. The goal is the development of desirable socio-civic and personal behavior.[3]

Daniel Roselle, editor of **Social Education** defines social studies as:

> "those courses, programs and projects which are designed to help children understand, analyze, react to, and act upon: 1) the relationships of human beings to the world in which they live. 2) The relationship of human beings to other human beings. 3) The relationship of human beings to themselves."[4]

Traditional Social Studies

The 1916 curriculum relied heavily upon history and civics for its content. Textbooks were characterized by ponderous listings of names, dates, and facts. Teachers covered the textbook from beginning to end with little effort to relate the information to the present. Testing was a simple recall of factual data.

The New Social Studies

In the 1960's an effort was begun to make social studies more relevant. The "New Social Studies" attempted to deal with learning on a high cognitive level; values and controversial issues were discussed openly and freely. Students were invited to examine their values and clarify their position on controversial issues. The social studies skills of inquiry and problem solving were emphasized and teachers were encouraged to vary their teaching strategies and curriculum materials.

Philosophies of the Social Studies

Through the years, various approaches to the social studies curriculum have been developed. Three philosophic approaches, which are widely used throughout the states have been selected for discussion. Few schools embrace one philosophy to the total exclusion of the others, instead an eclectic approach incorporating elements of the three is quite common. Rather than the State selecting a particular philosophy, each school district should formulate "a philosophy" which gives guidance of direction to the social studies program.

3. Michaelis, John V. and Keach, Everett T., Jr., Editors, **Teaching Strategies for Elementary School Social Studies**, F. E. Peacock Publishers, Inc., Itasca, Illinois, 1972, p. 14

4. Roselle, Daniel, **A Parents Guide to the Social Studies**, National Council for the Social Studies, Washington, D. C., 1974

Widening Horizons or Expanding Environment

This philosophy is perhaps the oldest and most popular philosophy in social studies curricula. The basic belief is that instruction begins with the known environment and progresses to more remote environments. For example, initial instruction would revolve around the child and his relationships and progress in the following fashion:

Grade 2: Family
Grade 3: Community
Grade 4: State
Grade 5: United States
Grade 6: North American Continent
Grade &: World

The criticism of the expanding government philosophy was summarized by Smith and Chardinell in the March, 1964, issue of **Social Education.** As they pointed out that due to television and more widespread travel, children have interests and exposures that go beyond their immediate community when they enter school.

Life Adjustment or Social Function Approach

Everyday the focal point of this philosophy is instruction in the basic activities in whch human beings engage as they go about the business of daily living - past, present and future. Special emphasis is given to the skills necessary for survival in our world. The following topics might be covered in this type of curriculum:

Community living	Money management
Wise vocational decisions	Communication
Adaptation to environment	Practice in filling out forms

The "Post-Sputnic Era" brought criticism of this philosophy because of the widespread feeling that content was being neglected. One of the major critics of the life adjustment approach was Jerome Bruner. Bruner in his book, **The Process of Education,** stressed that the curricula should be based on the structure of the social studies disciplines and that any concept can be mastered by most students at any level of development if the content is presented in an intellectually appropriate form.

The Conceptual Approach

As a result of the information explosion after World War II, educators realized the impossibility of teaching the vast quantities of factual data at their disposal. To compound this problem, facts learned in second grade were sometimes disproved by the time the student became a college senior. The conceptual approach selects certain concepts and deals with them rather than teaching facts. The facts are used as a base and concepts are built upon them. According to this philosophy it is more important to know where to find facts rather than to memorize them. Due to the concept approach, there is a greater emphasis on the development of higher

thought processes such as analysis, synthesis and evaluation. The following concepts might be covered in a conceptual social studies curriculum:

Family
Culture
Conflict
Causation
Interdependence

One of the criticisms leveled against the conceptual approach is that frequently concepts selected for study are not related to each other to form a unified whole. The critics also feel the approach is too time consuming.

Curriculum Projects

The curriculum revolution which began in mathematics, the natural sciences, and modern foreign languages in the 1940's, began to develop in social studies in the 1960's. More than 40 curriculum projects have been established since 1960. Millions of dollars have been spent by the United States Office of Education, professional organizations, and private foundations in developing, writing, field testing, revising, and implementing social studies curriculum materials. These projects have produced materials for use in kindergarten through the first two college years. Their objectives are as varied as their structures. Some projects attempt to turn out materials for one course in one discipline; others have prepared units of materials which can be incorporated into existing courses. The goal of these projects was to implement the "New Social Studies."

The National Council for the Social Studies has devoted two issues of **Social Education** to a review of these projects — April, 1970 and November, 1972. The 1972 issue reviewed the projects on the following points: product characteristics; rationale and objectives; content methodology; conditions for implementation; and evaluation.

The Social Science Education Consortium Inc., also published a review of social studies materials entitled the **Data Book.** At the present time, two volumes have been published. Volume I reviews textbook and project materials; Volume II reviews games, simulations, and supplementary materials.

Legislation

The National Defense Education Act (NDEA) has had a great effect on social studies in Illinois. NDEA was enacted in 1958, to improve instruction in the critical subject areas — mathematics, science and the modern foreign languages.

In October, 1946, the National Defense Education Act was amended to include history, geography and civics as critical subjects; economics was added in 1965.

A combination of NDEA and State funds financed 143 Social

Studies Workshops between 1965 and 1972. These workshops covered the following topics.

- History-Civics
- Geography
- Interdisciplinary geography-history
- Social Studies
- Strategies in Social Studies
- Economics
- Oceanography
- History, Geography, Civics
- Teacher Minority Cultures
- Cultural History
- Illinois History
- Teaching Strategies for History and Consumer Education

The majority of the current social studies publications available from the Illinois Office of Education were financed jointly by the Illinois Office of Education and NDEA.

Present Status of Social Studies

Generally speaking, the state requirements for the social studies are being met by almost every district in the State. This statement is based on the reports filed yearly by the School Approval Section of the Illinois Office of Education, which is required to visit schools and determine if certain minimum requirements are being met.

Social studies instruction in Illinois is as varied as the State itself. Some districts have reviewed their program K-12, eliminated duplication, added content, and stressed skills. Many of these districts have established a social studies committee with representatives from each grade level. This committee is usually responsible for the textbook selection, the development of a philosophy, and possible goals. The curriculum is reviewed on a regular cycle.

Other districts' efforts are limited to adding new books when copyright dates are 20 years old. These districts usually do not have a philosophy, and teachers are not aware of what is being taught at other levels.

In addition to the variation from the integrated K-12 curriculum to the mere exchange of texts at 20-year intervals, various approaches or teaching methods may be found throughout the State. Several of the more prominent are identified below.

Social Studies Skills Curriculum

The skills for the social studies were outlined by Eunice Johns and Dorothy Fraser in the **Thirty-third Yearbook** of the National Council for the Social Studies in 1963. The skills were grouped into the following categories: reading social studies materials; applying problem solving and critical thinking; interpreting maps and globes; and understanding time and chronology. The 1963 yearbook not only outlined the skills but it also provided suggestions as to when certain skills should be introduced and mastered. The approach is based on the belief that if a student learns skills he will be able to apply his knowedge to other social studies problems, and to life problems in

the future. As it is impossible to teach skills without content, content is selected to fit a particular district. This approach may be one of the ways social studies teachers will be able to answer the "back to the basics" movement which seems to be gaining momentum.

Both elementary and secondary districts have found the skills approach useful, and several Illinois school districts have developed their social studies program around these skills.

The Mini Course

One of the more popular approaches to secondary instruction today is the mini course. The mini courses are taught by a certified teacher, the course is usually nine weeks or a semester in duration, and students earn credit by taking the course. Instead of a student signing up for a year of American History, he may sign up for four, nine-week mini courses possibly on the Revolutionary War Era, American Foreign Policy, Famous Americans, and the Western Movement. Schools offering American History mini courses allow the students to select the period of American History they would like to investigate. Some social studies departments offer all their courses in the mini course format. In a number of schools, the social studies enrollment has climbed since the switch to the mini course. The one concern voiced by the public in regard to the American History mini course format is that students will never be able to put events into a chronological order. This concern has been resolved by teaching the junior high American History program in the chronological fashion. Chronology can also be covered with the extensive use of timelines.

Teaching Reading through Social Studies

Although it is possible to teach social studies without extensive reading assignments, a good supply of appropriate audiovisual materials is required. Since most districts do not have the resources to devote to a non-reading programs, ways are being investigated to assist the teachers with classes having reading problems.

The multi-text selection is one way to work with reading problems. In a multi-text classroom, several copies of several different textbooks rather than 30 copies of one basic textbook would be available for student use. For example, a junior level American History class might have 15 copies of **The Rise of the American Nation** by Harcourt, Brace, Jovanovich for the average readers; seven copies of **Inquiry U.S.A.** by Globe, which is written on the sixth grade reading level; and eight copies of the **Promise of America Series** by Scott Foresman, which is written on the eighth grade reading level. This multi-text approach provides the students with a variety of materials of different reading levels. Elementary teachers are also finding the multi-text selection can be helpful in the elementary classroom. Social studies teachers are also participating in inservice programs to help them teach reading through social studies.

Action Social Studies

In the past, a typical social studies classroom was characterized

by a teacher standing in the front of the room talking and the students sitting at their desks listening and taking notes. The students were expected to take a passive role in the educational process. Fortunately, this is ancient history to many Illinois schools.

The "New Social Studies" projects are now available in textbook form. These materials are based on the inquiry model which encourages students to gather, organize, and use data rather than memorize names, dates, and facts for a test. These new programs utilize simulations, role playing, community research projects, developmental activities, and problem solving to involve students. The passive role of the student has been changed to an active role.

The "New Social Studies" materials have also changed the secondary textbooks — they are now inquiry oriented and encourage students to get involved. In addition, many secondary schools are offering new courses which utilize community resources (e.g. some allow students to work with community agencies for school credit). Others have established courses which allow the students to spend from a week to a month with their legislator in Springfield or Washington.

Future Topics of Interest

As the population of the world increases and as nations become increasingly interdependent, it becomes apparent that people must learn to get along with one another. The future of social studies revolves around this important fact of life. More than any other subject area, the social studies strive to facilitate human relations. Our dependency upon one another is aptly illustrated by the recent curtailment of crude oil from the Middle East.

As the embargo on crude oil continued and long lines formed at gas stations, a nation accustomed to limitless travel became painfully aware of the United States dependence on other nations for this resource. This interdependence of nations has made the populace realize that we must learn to live together. In order to live harmoniously in this world we must know and understand other nations and people (Global Studies); we must have a system of law which will facilitate our relations (Law Studies); and we must realize that we are a world of unlimited wants and limited resources (Economics). Global Studies, Law Studies, and Economics will be the major areas of concern in the future for social studies. The school curricula are already crowded with mandated courses and requirements. To impose additional requirements would only serve to perpetuate and intensify the problem of meeting requirements in an already overcrowded school curriculum. Rather, these three areas should be incorporated into the existing social studies curriculum.

This could be done if each district would do the following: 1. Ascertain what social studies content is being taught at each level. 2. Determine which areas lend themselves to incorporation of Global Studies, Law and Economics. 3. Encourage teachers to attend workshops and inservices related to these areas, or (provide teacher inservice in these areas). 4. Use inservice days to review materials

and develop teacher materials which will enable teachers to integrate these concepts into their courses.

The Illinois Office of Education is available, as always, to assist districts with social studies curriculum improvement. At the present time a directory of competent Global Studies speakers and consultants is being developed. The Joint Council of Economic Education has developed a comprehensive list of publications which gives teachers some ideas on how to incorporate economics into their classes. The American Bar Association and the Law in American Society Foundation are available to provide assistance in the area of Law in the classroom.

Methods for the 70's

Social studies is not a never ending list of names, dates and facts to be memorized. "New Social Studies" is activity oriented, inquiry based, and meaningful to today's youth. The curriculum materials have been developed to incorporate New Social Studies; now we must provide this material to the schools. Many school districts are not as yet using new materials.

One reason for this is a lack of information. Districts have not heard about the new materials and therefore do not use them. This problem could be overcome by holding informational inservice sessions for teachers and administrators which could be conducted through the Illinois Office of Education, the Illinois Council for the Social Studies, the Educational Service Region Superintendents or through the combined efforts of all these groups.

Knowledge and inservice are the keys to the implementation of "New Social Studies" in our State.

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TEACHING HISTORICAL METHODS: A NEW LOOK AT J. F. K. ASSASSINATION

James A. Martin

The tumultuous events of the past decade have culminated in a grave and urgent challenge to American education — particularly the social sciences. The controversial Viet Nam war, shocking political assassinations and the most serious Constitutional crisis since the Civil War have provoked an emotional backlash directly affecting the national attitude toward education. Part of the problem over the past decade is the inability of students to reach objective deductions about these social and political crises. This, coupled with the current economic malaise has fueled a taxpayers revolt directed at schools across the country. At the same time, despondency with the "educational product" has led inalterably to stronger support for career education than for academic subjects like social science. The magnitude of this trend and the implications of it for social science is frightening. Yet the years ahead require intensive efforts at educating future generations lest they too fall prey to emotional rather than intelligent methods for analyzing the society in which they live. The future of social science demands that the profession succeed in teaching objectivity through historical thought and analysis. Examining historiography through John F. Kennedy's assassination is a case study of how this might be accomplished.[1]

The primary controversy surrounding the unfortunate events in Dallas, of November 22, 1963 has produced a classic debate over whether Lee Harvey Oswald did singlehandedly kill J. F. K. Consequently, this "single assassin" theory presents a unique opportunity for students to learn historical methodology by probing the assassination. The role of the eyewitness is the core of historical writing and therefore any reexamination of Kennedy's death should begin with a reconstruction of the actual shooting. While the Zapruder film is unavailable for classroom purposes, other useful substitutes, particularly slides of the assassination can be used. It is relatively easy for classroom teachers to develop their own visual approach to this event by selecting key slides so that student-historians can "witness" each significant development of this situation. The entire parade route can be reconstructed and students can review each important change, particularly in Zapruder frames 196-241; 313-317 and 413-419. This activity necessitates some informality in classroom approach; students should be encouraged to go to that area of the room where they can stand next to the projection screen for greatest use of this technique. In addition to recreating a historical event, the slides should be used to deal with concepts. Students should be asked to determine when Kennedy was hit, whether John Connally was struck simultaneously, was Kennedy shot from the front or the rear and was there more than one Oswald?[2] Such an approach will yield conflict rather than consensus thereby triggering a discussion

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involving both instructor and students over what factors produce dissimilar eyewitness interpretations of the same event.

Since preconceived explanations are often rooted in emotional reaction they can only be tested by a rational inquiry into available primary and secondary source accounts of the Kennedy assassination. The logical starting point is the Warren Commission Report. After ten months of research and twenty six volumes of testimony, the Warren Commission produced an impressive array of documentation to substantiate its' claim that Lee Harvey Oswald, acting alone, did assassinate John F. Kennedy. While it is cumbersome for students to read such a work, several lawyers, retained by the Commission as counsels, have summarized and explained the government's version of the assassination. David W. Belin as well as W. David Slawson and Richard M. Mosk offer relatively brief but surprisingly thorough accounts of the Commission's methodology and conclusions, thus providing students with seemingly conclusive proof to support the case against Oswald. It is advisable that teachers reproduce these two articles in class room sets, place them in the library or Learning Resource Center, and insist they be read thoroughly.[3] Given their interest, students usually examine such documents rigorously. Instructors might also give students a detailed reading outline designating the main points the writers discuss in order to promote better comprehension of data. Student research must be followed by a discussion of the Commission's findings and whether they convinced students that Oswald acted alone. It is beneficial to have students summarize their findings and write them on a chalkboard. Students may then wish to review the slides before determining whether they concur with the Commission.[4] This usually lasts one full class period.

Critics of the Commission's report have denounced it either as slipshod research or a cover-up. Articles and books by Commission detractors including Robert Sam Anson, Sylvia Meagher, George O'Toole, Fred T. Newcomb and Perry Adams offer a massive if not thoroughly convincing case for either rejecting the Commission's findings or for advancing a conspiracy theory.[5] While it is up to each instructor to decide which selections students should read, sufficient library time is a necessity; usually three class periods to review three articles is adequate. Instructors should outline the primary issues which critics reject in the Commission's findings such as whether Oswald did, beyond doubt, commit the crime, if any new evidence has been uncovered, and what dissenting eyewitnesses have said about events in Dallas. The succeeding classroom discussions should examine the critics' reinterpretation of the assassination and reasons to support their conclusions. These can be easily outlined on a board and again the Zapruder slides might be used to develop a full multi-media review of J. F. K.'s death. Certainly by this time students will recognize diverse and often conflicting interpretations of the same event and be compelled to compare visual and written selections of evidence that simply don't coincide. Their task is to determine who shot President Kennedy. My students even reconstructed the entire assassination and many were not convinced the entire truth has unfolded.[6]

Teaching historiography through J. F. K.'s death is more than an examination of a national loss. Through the use of slides and primary-secondary resources, students can gain insight into the basic problems of writing history. By forming their own hypothesis, making eyewitness deductions and reexamining their initial explanations of Kennedy's death after researching conflicting evidence, students become historians in their own right. Simultaneously, they will gain a deeper comprehension of the difficulty in making objective judgments. That, after all, is the historical method; it involves scientific rather than emotional explanation. Ideally, students will internalize such a method of inquiry adapting it to analyze broader issues of social and political concern over a long term period. One classroom activity can become a focal point for effecting an intelligent comprehension of society, particularly one still preoccupied with J. F. K.'s assassination.[7]

FOOTNOTES

1. Howard Mehlinger, **Address Before the Illinois Council for the Social Studies.** Homewood, Illinois, September 27, 1975. Dr. Mehlinger explored growing disillusionment with the New Social Studies and **Man: A Course of Study.** For a comprehensive review of growing discontent with history and social science in high schools and colleges see Richard S. Kuykendall, "The Status of History in the Schools," **Journal of American History** LXII (September, 1975), 557-570.

2. Pictures suitable for slides are available in color from many sources. See Robert Sam Anson, "The Greatest Cover-Up of All," **New Times** (April, 1975), 16-29; **The Rolling Stone** (April, 1975); Robert Sam Anson, **They've Killed the President.** (New York: Bantam Books, 1975), Pp 198-199; "November 22, 1963, Dallas: Photos by Nine Bystanders," **Life** (November 24, 1967), 87-97; There is some uncertainty over photographic evidence of whether there were two Oswalds, not one. See Anson, **Op. Cit.**

3. David W. Belin, "The Warren Commission was Right," **Skeptic: The Forum for Contemporary History** IX 12-15; 51-53. W. David Slawson and Richard M. Mosk, "Discounting the Critics," **Ibid.** 21-23.

4. A reading outline should cover key concepts over which Commission defenders and critics clash. Major ideas should include: (1) **The Warren Commission Report;** (2) "The Single Bullet" Theory; (3) Commission Exhibit No. 399; (4) Lee Harvey Oswald and the "two Oswald" theory; (5) Conflicting evidence over the Mannlicher-Carcano rifle; (6) Paraffin tests on Oswald; (7) Eyewitness identification of Oswald; (8) Different version by eyewitnesses; (9) The killing of officer J. D. Tippit; (10) The assassination tapes; (11) The "Grassy Knoll" theory; (12) Possible Links with the C.I.A., Castro and the mafia in Cuba. The use of the Psychological Stress Evaluator might also be examined. For an explanation of its' use and significance see "Theory Disarmed," **Newsweek** LXXVI (October 20, 1975), 41.

5. Anson, **Op. Cit.** Robert Sam Anson, "The Greatest Cover-Up of All," **Skeptic: The Forum for Contemporary History** IX 17-19, 53-61. Sylvia Meagher, "Finishing the Commission's Unfinished Business," **Ibid.,** 31-33, 61-62; For a comprehensive explanation of the Psychological Stress Evaluator's use in supporting Oswald's claim of innocence see George O'Toole, **The Assassination Tapes.** (New York: Penthouse Press, 1975); Fred T. Newcomb and Perry Adams, "Did Someone Alter the Medical Evidence?" **Skeptic: The Forum for Contemporary History** IX 25-27; 61.

6. The length of time instructors wish to spend on this technique can vary. If one prefers to have all students work on both pro and anti-Commission writings perhaps seven class days might be used; one day to see the slides initially; two days to review the Commission findings, three days to review critics' deductions, and one day for summation. This time span can be shortened by dividing a class into Commission defenders and detractors and have students play the role of Commission attorneys and critics. In this case perhaps four days are necessary. Tests can be designed to examine students' comprehension of historical methodology as well as factual material from readings. In a simplified format this technique works quite well with low ability students who not only learn much from the slides but also do a surprisingly good job handling some difficult reading.

7. For a more detailed explanation of the assassination, students and instructors might examine David W. Belin, **November 22, 1963: You are the Jury.** (New York: Quadrangle Books, 1973); James Bishop, **The Day Kennedy was Shot.** (New York: Funk and Wagnalls, 1968); Mark Lane, **Rush to Judgment.** (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1966); William Manchester, **The Death of a President, November 20-25, 1963;** (New York: Harper and Row, 1967); Sylvia Meagher, **Accessories After the Fact.** (Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Company, Inc., 1967); Kenneth O'Donnell, David Powers, et. al., **Johnny, We Hardly Knew Ye.** (Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1972).

THERE IS NO SUCH THING AS A FREE LUNCH

Vicki David

While doing a unit on economics in our social studies books, credit cards were mentioned. After discovering all the erroneous ideas the class had about the uses of a credit card, I decided to clear up these misconceptions by giving them a first hand, personal experience. Thus, we set up a credit card system within our own classroom.

The main purpose of the credit card unit was to teach the children how to use and how to avoid abuse of the privilege of having a credit card. The major goals for the credit card were:

1) To examine the use of credit cards through a personal experience.
2) To understand the uses of credit when making economic choices.
3) To understand the need for wise budgeting and spending when using a credit card.
4) To understand what happens when a person charges more than he can pay for.
5) To reinforce an understanding of how prices are affected by supply and demand.

After familiarizing the class with the concepts used when dealing with credit cards, we set up our credit card system in the classroom. Credit cards were issued to each student on the basis of a correctly completed application. The class agreed upon a list of the various things in the room that they would like to be able to charge, as well as the price of each. They also agreed upon a list of the grades that they thought deserved a monetary payment, and how much each grade was worth.

By having the children actually use their credit cards in the classroom, they developed a greater understanding of how the system works. They had to make economic choices as to what they really wanted to buy and decide if it was worth the money that they had to pay for the item. They learned that they were liable for their purchases when the bill came, and that they had to budget themselves so that they did not spend more money than they made during the week. They also learned about what the consequences were if they couldn't pay their bill when it was due. And, by filling out the different types of forms, the students demonstrated their understanding of the credit application and billing procedures. Additional evaluation took place through quizes and end of unit reaction sheets.

This simulation was run over a six week period of this year, and was used for a four month period of time last year.

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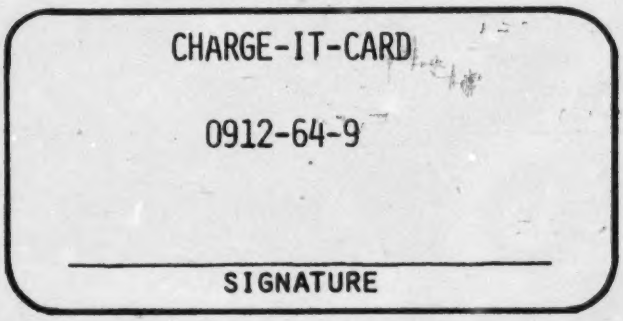
Description of Simulation:

After familiarizing the class with the concepts of applications, charge accounts, finance charges, billing, credit, and credit ratings, we set up our credit card system in the classroom.

The applications were made from a major credit card application. The class filled them out, putting in all pertinent information. Credit cards were then issued on the basis of a correctly completed application. Those who did not fill out their applications properly were turned down, and they had to re-apply. The application form was a duplication of a Master Charge actual form.

I personalized the credit cards by using the child's birthday and room number for the credit card number. For those who had the same birthdays, the last four numbers of their telephone numbers were used as the first four numbers on their credit cards.

Exhibit 1. Student Copy of Credit Card



The class made a list of things in the room that they would like to be able to charge, as well as how much each item would cost. They also made a list of the grades that they thought deserved a monetary payment, and how much each grade was worth.

When the charge cards were issued, it was explained to the class what to do if the card is lost or stolen. Next, we went over the procedure on how to use a credit card and how to fill out a charge form.

Each day, a different student is the store owner and writes out the charge forms when other students buy things. The charge forms are made out in duplicate. The original copy goes to the student for his records, and the duplicate copy is kept for billing.

At the end of each day, a different student acts as the banker. The banker pays the designated amount of money earned by each individual for any papers, (with good grades) which are on the "You Can Make Money" list. Since we change classes for math and reading, all payable papers must be signed by the class teacher.

At the end of each week, the bills are made out. Each student

fills out a billing form for another student in class. Then, they check with me. I keep a record of all the bills and whether or not they are paid. If a bill from a previous week is not paid up, a finance charge is added to the new bill. The finance charge is one dollar for every five dollars due.

If a student does not pay his bill two weeks in a row, his credit card is revoked. If he wishes to buy something, he must pay cash for it. After another two weeks, if he has saved up some money, he may then reapply for another credit card. His charging then has a credit limit until he proves that he can pay his bill weekly, when due. Once he has proven himself, his credit limit is lifted.

As a change of pace we occasionally have a "2 for 1 Sale." During this sale, all merchandise on the "You Must Pay For" list is sold at two for the price of only one. This helps the students to reinforce their understanding of the concepts of supply and demand, and to illustrate the effects of "sale" psychology.

This simulation was run over a six week period of time this year, and was used for a four month period of time last year.

A quiz of the terms given at the beginning of the uit was administered to the class as a post test. The responses showed a greater knowledge and understanding of the terms used when dealing with credit cards. Also, by filling out the different types of forms, the students demonstrated their understanding of the credit application and billing procedures.

At the end of the unit, the following two essay questions were asked so that the students could show their understanding of the unit's basic concepts.

1) How can a person be wise in his use of credit?
2) What happens when a person charges more than he can pay for?

YOU MUST PAY FOR:

Borrowing Text Books	$ 5	Recess Equipment	$ 3
Candy	$ 5	Ruler	$ 1
Coming in Late from Recess	$ 5	Scissors	$ 1
Crayons	$ 1	Stapler	$ 1
Eraser	$ 1	Staying in the Resource Center too Long	$ 5
Glue	$ 1	Tape	$ 1
Messy Desk	$ 5	Tardy 1st	$ 5
Misbehaving at Lunch	$10	Tardy 2nd	$10
Overdue Library Book Second Notice	$10	Tardy 3rd	$20
Paper (per sheet)	$ 1	Word Hunt	$ 2
Pencil (use for the day)	$ 2		

YOU CAN MAKE MONEY BY:

100 on a paper	$ 3	A- on a paper	$ 2
A+ on a paper	$ 3	B+ on a paper	$ 1
+ on a paper	$ 3	V+ on a paper	$ 1
90-99 on a paper	$ 2	B on a paper	$ 1
A on a paper	$ 2		

AN INTRODUCTORY GUIDE TO PHILATELIC EDUCATION

HERRY BALIN

What is a stamp? It is a printed piece of gummed paper which can carry your letter or package anywhere in the world. But a stamp is much more. It is a window through which a person can examine his country's traditions and history, or the culture of any country in the world. It is a miniature book, much more interesting than a "school book". But more importantly, the postage stamp has the unique attribute of stimulating student interest in such diverse subjects as social studies, science, mathematics, and art. Stamps are a "natural" learning resource. Students who are ordinarily "turned off" by academic subjects are "turned on" to stamp collecting; in addition, high academic achievers give an even more overwhelmingly positive response to stamp collecting.

Moreover, even if the academic benefits of stamp collecting are not taken into consideration, stamps can stand by themselves as a valid tool in furthering the goals of education. In an age when school children routinely vegetate in front of television sets after school, what better hobby than stamp collecting can provide an interesting yet educational free-time activity? With widespread educational funding cutbacks an increasingly growing problem, what better educational tool than stamps can provide a cost-free or low-cost resource? Is there a better means of fostering student-teacher rapport than stamps, where both students and teacher share the same hobby? What better means of behavior modification is there than stamps, where students suddenly take a new interest in school work if stamp prizes or "stamp time" are used as rewards.

But where does one start in introducing philately (the "correct" name for stamp collecting) into a school curriculum? A non-collecting teacher may have a difficult time; even a teacher who is familiar with philately may not be able to secure readily available resource materials. This is the purpose of "An Introductory Guide to Philatelic Education": to interject teaching "hints" which I have found useful and to provide a directory of readily available teaching resources. The "Guide" is geared to junior high specifically, but may be adapted to other grade levels.

Securing stamps. The crux of the problem is, "Where do I find stamps?" The following student handout sheet and "teacher's footnotes" should solve this problem. You might copy this handout for your students, or revise it as needed.

Where Do I Find Stamps?

1. The best place is your "contact", a person who receives a lot of mail and saves the stamps for you. Don't forget to tell - and keep

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reminding - your parents, your relatives, and your friends to save all stamps they receive.

In a polite manner, ask these same people if you can see their old files, old trunks, attics, or other places where there might be old letters with stamps.

Don't be afraid to go through the garbage or other "odd" places where stamps might be found — but use your own good judgement on this suggestion.

2. Another good way to receive new stamps is to trade stamps with your friends. This is one of the greatest joys in stamp collecting! If you are fortunate, you may write to a penpal in a foreign country and exchange stamps with him.—More about penpals later.

3. The best source of mint stamps is the post office. For U.S. stamps:

(a) A good place is the "sub station", a post office which is located in a drug store, grocery store, or other business. One such "sub station" is located at 11½ Harrison in Oak Park. However, sub stations do not have a great variety of stamps, nor does the postal clerk have time to fill philatelic requests, since he's often busy with his own business.

(b) Another good source is a regular post office, such as the one at 901 Lake Street. The post office has a complete stock of all current definitives and the last one or two commemoratives.

(c) The best source is the "Postique" which sells all current stamps and postal stationery including all commemoratives issued within the past year. The "Postique" was created to serve philatelists, and caters to our every need. The "Postique" in the Chicago area is located at Van Buren and Canal in Chicago, at the Main Post Office. If you can't go to the "Postique" write for an order blank to:

Philatelic Sales Unit
Washington, D. C. 20036

However, the Philatelic Sales Unit charges a service fee, and there will be a long delay before you receive your stamps.

Foreign stamps can also be purchased at "face value". Every country in the world has a philatelic sales unit. If you would like the address of your favorite country's philatelic sales unit, see Mr. Balin.

4. Last but not least, as a source for stamps, is the stamp dealer. Two local stamp shops are:

Mitch's Stamps and Coins
6638 Cermak, Berwyn

West Suburban Coin
1123 Westgate, Oak Park

These dealers are very knowledgeable in philately and will be

happy to offer suggestions and answer any questions you might have.

Ordering stamps by mail, or on "approval", can put you into contact with numerous dealers across the country. Ordering by mail does not have the benefit of face-to-face contact you have with your local dealer. However, mail order prices are likely to be less expensive. For the names of mail order stamp dealers, see the classified advertisements in **Western Stamp Collector, Linn's Stamp News,** or other philatelic publications. These same publications also carry news of the new issues of the U.S., U.N., and all the countries of the world.

TEACHER'S FOOTNOTES

2. Our class has a unique method of trading, the "stamp box". The "box" is a big cardboard box in which I "throw" all the duplicates from my personal collection and occasionally stamps which I have purchased. Collectors may obtain stamps from the "box" on a one-to-one trade or at the cost of 2/1c. Do not give out free stamps to your class! Such stamps will only land on the floor or in the wastebasket. It is important to attach some value to all stamps, even if the value is only 2/1c.

Penpals are a wonderful way to secure stamps from foreign countries, while fostering international friendships. Penpal sources include:

Junior Philatelic Society of America, Department of Penpal Services, Trudi Jacobsen, Director, 1173 New Scotland Road, Albany, New York 12203.

World Penpals, World Affairs Center, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota 55455.

International Friendship League, 40 Mount Vernon Street, Boston, Massachusetts 02108.

The League of Friendship, Box 509, Mount Vernon, Ohio 43050.

Student Letter Exchange, R.R. 4, Waseca, Minnesota 56093.

The J.P.S.A. penpal service is free and open to J.P.S.A. members and chapters only; the other organizations charge a fee for their services. An air letter (currently 18c) can be purchased at the post office, and used for air mail correspondence anywhere in the world.

3. Two other addresses of popular philatelic agencies are:
United Nations Postal Administration, New York, New York 10017.
Philatelic Service, Canada Post, Ottawa, Canada K1AOB1.

The addresses of philatelic agencies throughout the world are occasionally listed in **Linn's Stamp News** and the **Western Stamp Collector.** Lists can also be purchased from:
Leonard I. Kindler, Box 12328, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19119 ($1).
Jacob Kisner, 750 Park Avenue, New York, New York 10021 (50c plus No. 10 SSAE).

A note of caution: With the growing popularity of stamp collecting, the United States Postal Service and some private companies are promoting "starter kits" centering around such themes as "space", "art", or "sports". Such kits are 'rip offs'! The kits contain low priced, colorful "stamps" issued by iron curtain or third world countries. These "stamps" are termed "wall paper", as they are issued by certain postal administrations solely for stamp collectors, not for use on mail (although many carry fake cancellations). A great number of these worthless labels have never even seen their supposed country of origin.

However, it is important to encourage topical collecting (organizing a collection by subject, such as Americana, sports, or flowers), as opposed to traditional collecting by country. But, encourage your junior philatelists to form their own topical collections rather than purchasing already made ones.

•More resource information is available by contacting the author.

CAREER EDUCATION: A PLACE TO START

Marlow Ediger

The concept of career education in the public schools is discussed frequently in education today. Thus, teachers, principals, and supervisors have felt a strong need to get adequate information and implement plans for instruction in career education. Too frequently, innovations in education are implemented rather rapidly in the public schools merely because of the "newness" of these plans for instruction. Thus, new objectives, learning activities and assessment procedures are brought into the school setting without ample evaluation as to their strengths and weaknesses. New curriculum areas or units of study adopted by the public schools may follow desirable criteria pertaining to teaching-learning situations, and yet fail, due to the teaching staff and the lay public not being properly oriented in accepting these desirable innovative ideas. Advocates of career education have stated objectives such as the following for learners to ultimately achieve:

1. Pupils are to become knowledgeable about opportunities pertaining to jobs and positions in the world of work.

2. Learners hopefully will develop proficiency in a job or position which is rewarding and satisfying.

3. Pupils should contribute needed skills in the world of work which can benefit mankind.

4. Individuals need to be happy, contributing members of society.

These are noble goals. Can they be implemented in teaching-learning situations? Selected criteria must be emphasized before programs and units of instruction in career education can be successfully implemented in the public schools.

Criteria for Implementing Career Education

There are important standards or guidelines which must be followed pertaining to the making of changes in the curriculum. Thus, in the ultimate implementation of career education in the public schools, selected standards must be followed.

1. Public school personnel should make a thorough study of what career education is. This can be accomplished through the reading of literature and the visiting of schools which have quality programs in career education.

2. Programs of inservice education such as workshops and faculty meetings devoted to career education can aid teachers, supervisors, and principals to become orientated to and accept this innovative program of instruction.

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3. The school system must devise approaches in informing parents and other interested lay citizens the need for units of instruction in career education. This may be accomplished through conferences, articles in the local newspaper, items on the radio and television, Parent-Teacher Association meetings, and the school newspaper. Interested lay citizens should be encouraged to raise questions about and present opinions on the need for curriculum changes in the public schools.

4. Objectives for units in career education should be carefully evaluated by teachers, principals, supervisors, and parents. With teacher-pupil planning in different units of study, a still broader base exists for selecting educational objectives. Relevant units of study and relevant objectives are of utmost importance in the area of career education.

5. Adequate teaching materials are necessary to utilize in units on career education. Provision must be made for individual differences. Thus, slides, films, filmstrips, pictures, transparencies; excursions, reference books and models, among other materials, may be used in providing learning experiences for pupils.

6. A variety of approaches or methods should be utilized in teaching pupils. Pupils have different learning styles. Thus, the teacher must assist in providing those experiences which will guide pupils in achieving to their optimum. To vary approaches in teaching, the teacher may utilize discussions, problem solving situations, explanations, brain-storming, and other means of gaining data. Critical and creative thinking should be strongly reinforced in teaching-learning situations.

7. An effective program for assessing pupil achievement in career education is a necessity. Pupils, parents, teachers, principals, and supervisors must be interested in determining how successful units of study in career education are. Thus, the objectives, as well as learning experiences, and evaluation techniques must be assessed to determine the effectiveness of programs in career education. Revision and modification of programs in career education must be based on data gathered from a comprehensive evaluation program.

In Summary

Quality programs in career education can be developed with the participation of teachers, principals, supervisors, parents and pupils. Relevant units of study must be selected in career education. Pupils should achieve meaningful objectives; provision in learning experiences must be made for individual differences among learners. It is of utmost importance to evaluate programs of instruction in career education. Based on evaluation, needed modifications and revisions can be made in units of instruction on career education.

CASES FOR DECISION MAKING AND VALUE ANALYSES

William P. McLemore

Cases can be used to help develop students' abilities to think critically and analyze values. More specifically, case analyses can motivate students to make decisions, take positions, defend and explain their position. In the process, students can reveal, identify, and clarify their own values.

Case analyses can help students determine what values other people hold. Also, students can learn how values influence people's behavior. Studying cases can help students learn how people have faced decision making problems and acted in situations involving multiple values. Moreover, case analyses can help each student learn whether he or she holds conflicting values and the possible consequences of acting on his or her values.

The two cases that follow may be used to stimulate elementary students to think critically, make decisions, and examine their own values. The first case is about a boy and the second, a girl. Questions for discussion follow each case.

John Good Boy

John Good Boy is the oldest child in a family of ten children. John's family is very poor, but his family has lots of love.

John's mother and father encourages him to be an honest hard-working student. John listens to them. He is a good student. However, on tomorrow, his class will take a field trip to the Afro-American Museum without him. He is not going because he does not have a dollar to pay the bus fare. John thought about that as he walked to school. He looked up just in time to see his teacher, Miss Shy. She rushed across the street before the traffic light changed. Then, just as she stepped on the curb, something fell out of her purse. She didn't see it fall; therefore, she hurried on. But, John saw it. He ran to the corner to see what it was. Suddenly, his eyes opened wide in surprise! It was a crisp new dollar bill. Quickly, John picked it up and stuffed it in his pants pocket. With a smile on his face, he walked into the school, entered his classroom, and quietly sat down. Then he realized that he had to make a big decision. Without moving his lips, he asked himself two questions: "Should I give the dollar to mother so she can buy some milk for Nancy? Or, should I use it for my bus fare to the museum?"

Finally, John Good Boy made up his mind. He got out of his seat and walked to Miss Shy's desk. Slowly, he pulled the crumpled dollar out of his pocket, and stood silently—for a moment. Then in a low voice, he said, "It's yours, you dropped it."

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Questions for Discussion

1. How did John show that he is a good citizen?
2. Should John have used the dollar for his bus fare? Why? Why not?
3. Should John have given the dollar to his mother? Why? Why not?

Pam's Jump Rope

Pam ran home from school, opened the door, put her books on the kitchen table, and greeted her mother. Then she asked: "Mother, may I go outside and jump rope?" Pam's mother knew how she liked to play with her jump rope. So she answered, "Yes, Pam you may jump rope on the sidewalk in front of our house. You may jump as long as you want to, but don't cross the street." Pam smiled as she went to her toy box and picked up her bright red jump rope. With it in her hand, she went out the door.

Pam hopped, skipped and jumped. But suddenly she smelled something. It was smoke! She looked up the street and there she saw it, gray and black smoke! It was coming out of the windows of Mister Green's house. Also, she saw yellow, orange and red flames leaping into the sky.

Pam said to herself, "Somebody might be inside the house." Then instantly, she ran across the street. She ran as fast as she could to the red fire alarm box. Just as she got to the box she took her rope's wooden handles and smashed the box's glass, reached inside and pulled the alarm. Suddenly she realized what she had done. In her excitement, she had disobeyed her mother. She had crossed the street. So hurriedly she ran home. But just as she stepped on the curb, across the street, she fell and cut her knee. It began to bleed. As Pam got up, she heard her mother call, "Pam! Pam!"

With a sore elbow and a bloody knee, Pam limped into the house. Her mother looked at her and said "You're bleeding Pam. How did you get hurt?" Without answering, Pam started to cry. She didn't want to tell her mother. But with tearful eyes she said "I hurt myself when I fell crossing the street." Mother asked "Why were you in the street? Did I give you permission to cross the street? Didn't I tell you to jump rope on the sidewalk? Because you disobeyed me, you won't get any desert for dinner. Now let me put some medicine on you." Pam stood quietly holding her rope, as her mother tenderly cared for her elbow and bleeding knee.

Questions for Discussion

1. What was the biggest problem Pam faced?
2. Should Pam have crossed the street? Why? Why not?
3. Should Pam have not told her mother that she'd crossed the street? Why?

Case Analyses

The teacher may prepare the class for case analyses by giving students mimeographed copies of the case. They may immediately read the case or they may be instructed to take it home and read it. After reading it, they should discuss it.

Before the students discuss their thoughts and values, they may roleplay the characters.

The "Colored Square Strategy" may also be used for decision making and value analyses. The teacher writes the following colors and words on the chalkboard:

Green	Strongly agree
Purple	Agree
Brown	Undecided
Orange	Disagree
Red	Strongly disagree

Then she tells her students to listen carefully as she reads the case they will later discuss. After reading the case, the teacher gives each student five pieces of colored construction paper — three inches squared. The papers are colored green, purple, brown, orange, and red. The teacher calls attention to the chalkboard and tells the students what the colors stand for. Also, she informs the students that they're to respond to the decision made in the case by holding up the colored square which indicates their response. But, they're to only hold up one colored square.

The students should discuss why they held up a particular colored square. The discussion can begin with the students who held up the green square. Afterwards, the discussion should involve students who held up other colored squares. Also, the teacher should ask the students who changed colored squares to explain why they picked up two squares before deciding to only hold up one square.

The "Colored Square Strategy" permits all students to participate in the case analyses. Moreover, the "Colored Square Strategy" helps students understand that different people hold similar values. Students also can realize that the same person may hold conflicting values.

In the case analyses, the teacher should coordinate the discussion and refrain from making moral judgment. A classroom atmosphere which permits free and creative discussion of various points of view is essential for developing students' abilities to think critically, make decisions and analyze values.

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